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ABSTRACT

Information is provided on the goals of Israel's Everyman's University (EU) and its students, curricula and study modes, extra-academic programs, new directions, governance, and budget. Introductory materials include a country profile, an overview of higher education in Israel, information on distance education, the open university, and the establishment and early years of EU. EU goals include serving the disadvantaged, training teachers, and offering second chances to persons unable to benefit from regular study programs. EU also promotes scientific research and the development of study material and innovative methods. Over 90 percent of EU students are enrolled in formal academic offerings leading to a degree. Each course typically has a text with 12 study units, along with computer-marked and tutor-marked assignments. About 45 EU courses have 6-12 television programs, and about 6 hours per week of radio transmissions enrich course offerings. An extensive lending service of audiovisual aids is also provided. A summary of EU's accomplishments in the first decade and recommendations and questions for policymakers are provided for Israeli leaders, as well as Third World countries interested in adapting distance education or open learning methodologies to national needs. A 37-item bibliography concludes the document. (sW)

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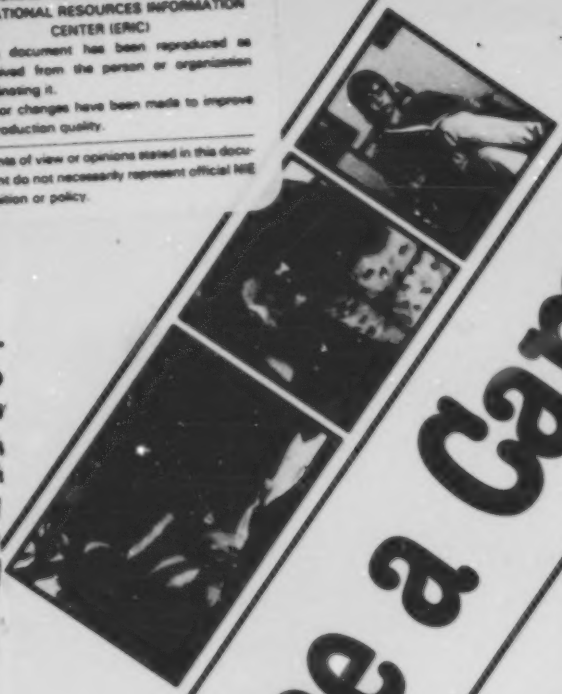

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Any Home a Campus:

Everyman's University of Israel

Samuel Halperin

Institute for Educational Leadership, Inc.
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ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Samuel Halperin has combined careers in academia, the U.S. federal government, and leadership development to become a respected commentator on policymaking for education.

After earning his Ph.D. in political science, he taught in several universities and joined the professional staffs of the U.S. Congress' House and Senate committees on education. His later work as Assistant U.S. Commissioner of Education for Legislation and Congressional Relations (1965-66) and Deputy Assistant Secretary for Legislation, Department of Health, Education and Welfare (1966-69) won two Superior Service awards and the Distinguished Service Award.

Since 1969, Halperin has created and directed several professional development programs for American educational policymakers conducted under the auspices of the Institute for Educational Leadership, of which he was director (1974-81) and first president (1980-81).

Dr. Halperin has been a guest lecturer at leading universities around the country and has published over 80 articles and reviews in professional, educational, and political journals, books, encyclopedia and compendia. He has also served on the U.S. Peace Corps Advisory Council and the Secretary of the Navy's Advisory Board on Education and Training and been a Visiting Fellow of the Jerusalem Center for Public Affairs.

Some of the Dr. Halperin's other studies include: *The Political world of American Zionism; A University in the Web of Politics; A Guide for the Powerless—and Those Who Don't Know Their Own Power; Federalism at the Crossroads: Improving Educational Policymaking* (ed.); *Perspectives on Federal Educational Policy* (ed.).

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"WHERE THERE IS NO VISION, THE PEOPLE PERISH."

—Proverbs 29:18

This study is dedicated to the very large vision of
Yigal Allon and the Rothschild Foundation.

Foreword and Acknowledgments

The worldwide explosion of higher learning and the incredible growth of new technologies and methodologies to promote that learning provide the immediate context for this study. Everyman's University is an Israeli adventure in educational innovation for those who would make of their home a university campus. Its story is worth telling in its own right and more so as an aid to educators and policymakers worldwide who strive to smash the barriers to educational opportunity and excellence.

When this study was commissioned in the summer of 1982 there existed no published English language surveys of Everyman's University beyond brief synopses, mostly concerned with its founding. Since then, two excellent treatments of the University's early years have appeared in print, one by David Seligman and the other by Arthur S. Melmed and three associates. While benefitting greatly from these works, I have updated them and gone beyond published materials in English to utilize unpublished documentation and Hebrew-language publications, supplemented by a variety of interviews in 1983 with administrators, staff and students of Everyman's University and other Israeli educational institutions.

A word is in order about how to read and use this study: Many readers are likely to have specialized interests, for example, distance education generally or Israeli higher education in particular. Moreover, some readers will come to this study with a great deal of knowledge about Israeli society while others will have very little. A similar observation may be made about the vast and mushrooming literature of distance learning and DTUs—distance teaching universities. Faced with this problem, I have concluded that relatively brief overview chapters on both Israel and distance education are unavoidable no matter how elusive are ultimate syntheses of either. Knowledgeable readers are, accordingly, advised to skip entire chapters and to focus on less well-known material. In any case, this study is addressed neither to Israelis nor to distance education researchers alone but primarily to educators and policymakers in Third World countries who may wish to know how one small

nation went about adapting distance education methodology to its own national needs and circumstances.

Harold Howe II was indirectly responsible for this effort when he inquired of me as to the progress of the institution whose creation he had endorsed a decade earlier. Drs. Gladys Chang Hardy, Judy Barsalou and Edward Meade of the Ford Foundation each encouraged this inquiry while the Foundation made available the necessary funds. Drs. Daniel Elazar, President of the Jerusalem Center for Public Affairs, and Michael Usdan, President of the Institute for Educational Leadership, each provided a most congenial home and support services at different phases of the project.

And no objects of study could have been more gracious and helpful than the leadership and staff of Everyman's University. Particular thanks are due to President Avraham Ginzburg and especially to Dr. Avshalom Shohat, my unfailing guide and mentor on this voyage to a culture and an educational methodology so different than the ones in which I grew up.

Peter P. Muirhead, Arlene Horowitz (Clearinghouse on Development Communications), Arthur Melmed, Ilana Nitzan and Avshalom Shohat read all or portions of the manuscript, expertly typed by John Rankin and Louise Clarke, and made numerous helpful suggestions. Ellison Platt of Britain's Open University provided useful data to set the Israeli experience in international context. To all of these fine friends, my sincere thanks.

My admiration for what has been accomplished at Everyman's University is apparent in many points in this manuscript. I can only hope that I have captured accurately the essential workings of the University and that any errors of fact or interpretation which have crept into the writing are overshadowed by the magnificent spirit, the accomplishments and large promise of the University. In any case, none of the persons whose help I have publicly acknowledged should be held responsible for failings on my part.

Chapter 1 Israel: A Country Profile

Israel is small in geographic size, but large in the complexity of its cultural, educational, economic, political, demographic and social life. No adequate understanding of the role of Everyman's University can be obtained without some attention to that web of complexity. Hence, some basic facts about the country:

Area and Distance

Israel is comprised of 21,501 square kilometers of land and 445 square kilometers of water area, together amounting to less than 8,500 square miles—roughly the size of Massachusetts. North to South, Israel is 320 miles long, while its East-West width varies from a mere nine to 70 miles. Driving time among its three largest cities is: Haifa-Tel Aviv, under two hours; Tel Aviv-Jerusalem, under one hour.

Population

Total population in 1982 was 4,063,600 of whom 3,373,200 (83%) were Jews and 690,400 (17%) non-Jews. Of the non-Jewish, mostly Arab, population, 76.9% were Moslem, 13.6% Christian, 9.5% Druze and others. An additional 1.1 million Arabs live in the Administered Territories occupied by Israel in the Six-Day War of 1967 (Judea, Samaria, Gaza or "The West Bank"). As the result of population transfers, assimilation and declining births in the Diaspora, the Jews of Israel constitute 26% of world Jewry, up from 20% in 1970, and could become a majority early in the next century.

Immigration

Israel's Jewish population numbered 650,000 when the state was created in 1948, mostly immigrants or children of immigrants. Since then, Israel has

absorbed 1.7 million Jewish newcomers, over half from Asia and North African countries. Thus, today, about 52% of the Jewish population derives from the "communities of the East" (stretching from Morocco to India) while about 48% come from Europe and "the West." (from Canada and Argentina to Russia and Australia). By 1982, 58.1% of the population had been born in Israel, 23.3% born in Europe and the Americas; 18.6% in Asia and Africa. Immigration totaled 13,723 in 1982, down sharply from the 36,750 of 1970 (mostly from the USSR) and the 170,215 of 1950, when Jews were being "ingathered" from the Eastern communities and from the remnants of post-Holocaust European Jewry.

Urbanization

87% of all Israelis are urban dwellers while one third live in the greater Tel Aviv area. Jerusalem is now Israel's largest city with some 425,000 residents. Altogether, about two-thirds of the population lives in the ten-mile wide coastal strip between Lebanon and Gaza (about 13% of total land area.) The arid Negev, with about two-thirds of Israel's land area, is home to only 7% of the population. Agricultural collectives and cooperative villages (kibbutzim and moshavim) comprise 6.6% of the total population (116,000 and 154,000 persons, respectively).

Governmental Structure

Israel has a parliamentary system with strong powers vested in a Prime Minister and a Cabinet as long as they maintain a majority in the 120-Member unicameral legislature, the Knesset. Elections to the Knesset (by universal suffrage) are slated at least every four years; the last were held on July 23, 1984.

Currently, there are 15 political parties and single-Member Knesset factions. All Israeli governments since 1948 have been coalitions. These were led, until 1977, by a bloc of Labor parties and, since then, by Likud, a coalition of diverse factions which reject Labor's socialist and trade union orientation and which generally take more "hawkish" views on foreign policy. Party politics in Israel are considered particularly contentious, reflecting the sharp diversity of Israeli viewpoints on many issues. As of this writing, the composition of Israel's next coalition government has not yet been decided.

Cultural Diversity

Israel's population can be traced to well over 100 countries speaking some 90 languages. Diverse cultures still flourish and are the objects of national support and both political and scholarly attention.

Perhaps the greatest single achievement of the society is the forging of a reborn and modernizied common national language—Hebrew—and a complete range of economic, social and political institutions operating in that language. Probably more Arabs have proficiency in Hebrew than Jews have in Arabic but, as a group, Jews have considerable skill in Arabic which is being promoted as a recommended language in the schools, as well as the second official language of the nation. English is widely spoken, being the most popular foreign language choice in the schools, in the cinemas, etc.

Overall literacy places Israel in the upper decile of the world's population and, according to a 1984 UNESCO survey, Israelis read and publish more books per capita than any other nation. (Ninety percent of Israelis aged 9–13 read a book per month while over a million Israelis over age 14 do likewise.)

Israel's population deriving from Africa and Asia has generally been characterized by higher rates of poverty and under-education. Accompanying their one-time average of 4.7 births (now fallen to 3.1) versus the 2.8 births of Euro-American women there were also marked differences in educational attainment, income, professional qualifications, political office holding, housing and other common social indicators. While significant disparities still exist between these "Eastern" and "Western" (more accurately, Southern and Northern) communities, most observers point to large social and economic gains in recent years as the result of extensive social programs, expanding educational opportunity, the rapid development of the Israeli economy, and the persistent efforts and ambitions of the Eastern communities themselves. Moreover, "caste and class" are not rigid conceptions in Israel; close to a quarter of all marriages are now contracted by couples of mixed cultural origin (i.e., East-West/North-South). Intermarriage between Jews and Arabs, on the other hand, is relatively rare.

Economy

Israel holds world records or near-records for its expenditures on defense, the burden of its taxation, accelerating rate of inflation, the high level of its domestic subsidies and human resource services, and its relatively low level of unemployment. 1983 was a particularly disastrous year for the Israeli economy with a 200% inflation rate, $3.6 billion civilian and $1.5 billion military foreign trade deficit, $28 billion total foreign debt, growth in GNP of only one percent, and a 70% loss in the Tel Aviv stock exchange index. A few additional facts represent the very complex case:

Except for substantial quantities of chemicals and minerals extracted from the Dead Sea, the country has practically no natural resources or raw materials. Limited in its water supply, Israeli agriculture is, nevertheless, exceedingly technologically advanced, to the point that the country is virtually self-sufficient in food production. A severely adverse balance of payments results

from heavy dependence on imported oil, major armaments and a variety of raw materials. Principal export earners are: diamonds polished in Israel, tourism,* agricultural products (especially citrus), agricultural chemicals and fertilizers, pharmaceuticals, electronics and military equipment.

Currently, some 26% of the GNP is earmarked for defense, up from 20% in 1973, when Israel was caught by surprise in the Yom Kippur War. Israel's tax burden amounts to 57% of the GNP, in part to pay for its massive defense expenditures, and in part to finance the high level of public services in health, education and welfare which have characterized the state since its inception. Debt repayment alone amounts to almost 40% of the Government's regular budget.

In the month of January 1984, inflation was running at an annualized rate of 473%; during the previous 12 months, retail prices rose 208%, thus requiring an urban family of four to spend 83,500 shekels for a package of goods and services that had cost only 3,680 shekels in 1980. Until recently a series of transfer payments, subsidies and salaries largely linked to the cost of living had cushioned most of the population from the harshest effects of such hyper-inflation. Real declines in living standards were, however, registered beginning in late 1982 and 1983.

The economy has long been marked by substantial maldistribution of labor between production and the services. In 1982, 58.3% of the labor force worked in the services, including 30% in central government bodies, local authorities and the numerous Zionist and Jewish quasi- public agencies and non-profit organizations. Industrial employment accounted for 22.9% of the labor force and a highly productive agricultural sector for only 5.7%. Construction, transportation and communications constituted the balance of employment opportunities. Indicative of the trends: In the previous three years (1980–83), the public services hired an additional 30,000 workers, commerce and food services grew by 30,000, and financial services expanded by 25,000. In the past two years, on the other hand, industry sustained a loss of 3,000 workers and agriculture of 5,000. Many formerly flourishing agricultural cooperative settlements are currently in deep financial crisis attributable largely to the worldwide economic slowdown which has seriously eroded Israel's agricultural export markets.

Israeli productivity per worker was only $16,700 in 1982—high by world standards but trailing the 14 industrialized countries of North America, Western Europe and Japan. (Israel's next highest competitor in this ranking is Italy.) Over the decade 1973—82, Israeli agriculture showed a real increase of 134% while industry rose only 17% and construction actually fell by 11%. Overall, Israeli product per worker increased about one percent annually—slightly ahead of the U.S., Canada and Sweden. With exports covering only

* In 1983, 1,170,000 tourists spent over $1 billion and supported over 60,000 jobs.

63% of imports, Israel's civilian foreign trade deficit rose to $3.6 billion in 1983, up from $284.4 million in 1960 and $700 million in 1970. (Military imports less extensive sales abroad also produced a deficit of about $1.5 billion in 1983).

Although Israeli economic stagnancy and disinvestment were among the steepest of any industrialized country, it should be noted that a conscious policy of all Israeli governments—to avoid massive unemployment and thus to discourage emigration—had succeeded; unemployment rates in the decade averaged 3.8–5%, or half those of Britain and the U.S. (if still higher than Japan's 2.5%).

Despite the current precarious state of its economy, Israeli gross domestic expenditure on research and development as a percentage of the GNP (2.2%) ranked alongside Japan and Britain, was exceeded only by industrialized nations. Investments like these had helped to produce a modern industrial state, ranking Israel with the eighth highest per capita level of industrial exports, over a third of which are the products of local research and development. In 1977–81 alone, Israeli exports grew at the remarkable annual rate of 18%—before they were set back by worldwide recession and economic policy errors.

The Israeli economy is also characterized by massive private consumption. In 1982, despite large budget deficits in the public sector—in part attributable to a hyper-developed system of subsidies and domestic transfer payments which reduce inequality among families by about 20%—private consumption rose by 8% in real terms. One out of six Israelis traveled abroad in 1983—700,000 persons, up 25% from 1982. Some 70,000 new private automobiles were imported in 1982 and 115,000 videocassette recorders in 1982–83. Overall, Israelis acquired massive amounts of durable goods during a decade characterized worldwide by recession, stagflation and unemployment. This is graphically demonstrated in Table 1.

Transportation and Communications

Buses transported by workers' cooperatives and heavily subsidized by the Government provide an efficient mode of public transportation. Private group taxis (*sherut*) also link the major cities swiftly and at low cost. The country is further served by automatic dialing telephone service, relatively reliable (but slow) postal services, and several rail lines used mostly for freight but also carrying some passengers. All three of these services are owned and operated by the State. There is a single-channel color television station and several radio bands, including one run by the Israel Defense Forces (IDF). General as well as instructional radio and TV programs are scheduled through the public Israel Broadcasting Authority, modeled after the British Broadcasting Corporation.

Table 1: Percentages of Israeli Families* Owning Durable Goods, 1970–81

Year	Private Auto	Television	Telephone	Washing Machine	Electric Refrigerator	Combined gas-electric Oven
1970	15.4	49.7	34.8	42.8	88.9	5.0
1974	26.1	79.7	48.0	61.1	94.2	33.0
1981	33.5	90.9	65.6	78.5	98.6	69.0

* Percentages for Jewish families only are 2–5 percentage points higher than shown above. (Source: *Statistical Abstract of Israel, 1983*, Table XI/31.

Military Service

One of the central facts of life in Israel, mightily affecting the economy, educational system and virtually everything else in the society, is the system of military service. Men give three years, women two, of compulsory military service, generally beginning at age 18. Thereafter, men continue to serve 14 to 60 or more days (depending on their age and the nation's security needs) of annual reserve duty until age 55; childless women may be (but seldom are) called up to age 34.

Thus, most Israelis begin their university or postsecondary education 2–4 years after completing their high school studies. By then, many are married, have children and carry out heavy employment responsibilities, altogether presenting a very different student profile—older and "more settled"—than in most countries. Moreover, call-ups for reserve duty often play havoc with academic schedules of students and faculty alike.

Educational System

Education enjoys high prestige in Jewish tradition, a value reinforced by the realization that Israel is exceedingly poor in natural resources, faces grave security risks and, consequently, must develop its brainpower to the fullest. Moreover, as the job market tightens, high school graduation has become a virtual necessity for entry-level employment and a bachelor's degree the minimum credential for most white-collar and professional careers. Vocational, technical and agricultural education also enjoy unusually high status since their graduates have been absorbed by the developing economy in relatively well-paying jobs.

Accordingly, education is one of Israeli's major "industries" with over 1,270,000 students formally enrolled in 1982—31% of the total population. Of all Jewish children aged 6–13, 96.7% (94.2% of Arab children) were enrolled in the schools along with 68% of the Jewish 14–17 year olds (48% of these in general education, 52% in vocational and agricultural programs).

Enrollments in the Hebrew language system are as follows (in thousands): kindergartens 255; primary schools 455; intermediate, secondary, vocational and agricultural schools 235; teacher training colleges 11.8; postsecondary and non-university higher learning 15.9; universities 60.7. There were an additional 193,000 students in the Arab language schools, of whom almost 150,000 were in kindergartens and primary schools. Only 600 students were studying in Arab post-secondary institutions while approximately 2,000 Arabs were enrolled in institutions, mostly the universities, in which Hebrew is the language of instruction.

In European terms, Israel's achievement is impressive. Although attendance is compulsory only through grade 10 and tuition fees for grades 11 and 12 were abolished as recently as 1979, in 1981–82, 68.8% of Jews aged 17 were still in school versus about 40% in 1971. (In the early Seventies, reported Sweden's Torsten Husen, comparable figures were 45% for Sweden, 39% for Israel, 29% for France, 20% for Britain, and 9% for Germany.)

Only 36.5% of the Israeli labor force is composed of women—a lower percentage than in other industrialized countries. Yet, there is an extraordinary national commitment to day care centers, nursery schools and kindergartens, mostly run by municipalities and private voluntary (usually women's) organizations on a graduated fee basis. About 64% of all Jewish two-year olds, 94% of the three-year olds and 99% of four-year olds are enrolled in such programs. (Because of differences in child-rearing practices and other cultural values, only 12% of Arab three- and four-year olds are enrolled in early childhood educational programs.) Currently, one year of pre-primary kindergarten education at age five is also free and compulsory. However, under a law passed on June 13, 1984, free and compulsory education will commence at age *three*, to be phased in over a six-year period beginning in September, 1985.

In addition to the three State-supported systems—general (or secular), religious and Arab education—there is a state-subsidized ultra-orthodox independent system, Hinuch Atzmai. Primary schools serve children age 6–14. Junior high schools are gradually being introduced for children age 11–15 (*hativat b'aynayim*).

Under the British mandate for Palestine, a separate Arab education system was developed which does not require study of the Bible and Hebrew language and literature courses which are mandatory for Jewish students. This system has been continued and greatly expanded since the advent of Israeli statehood—from 60% of the boys and 20% of girls studying in primary schools in 1947 to 96.6% of the boys and 71.6% of girls studying in 1981–82. Arab youths aged 14–17 have also rapidly increased their study rates in recent years—from 38% of the boys and 20% girls in 1969–70 to 61% and 50.8% respectively, in 1981–82.

At age 17–18 the *bagrut* or matriculation examination is taken by students

in high schools in about six subjects, the results of which determine elegibility to compete for a place in one of the universities. In 1981–82, 17,700 students successfully passed the *bagrut*, including 2,000 graduates of the Arab education system. Overall, only about 20% of all students aged 18 have passed the *bagrut* and are therefore eligible for admission to one of the conventional universities. A wide range of post-secondary educational institutions is available for those not passing the *bagrut*.

Progress in closing the country's major educational gap is shown by the fact that secondary school enrollments have risen dramatically for the 14–17 age group, particularly in the vocational schools, whose enrollments expanded 3,400% since 1948. Among pupils whose fathers were born in Israel, enrollments rose from 85.9 to 93.6% between 1969 and 1981. During the same period, enrollment of pupils with European or American-born fathers rose from 81.5 to 84.2% and pupils with Asian or African-born fathers rose dramatically—from 54.9% to 79.2%. Further gains are expected resulting from the elimination of tuition fees in grades 11 and 12, effective in 1979.

This rapid growth of high school enrollments must be exclaimed critically. For example, while Asia-African backgrounds account for 57% of the total 14–17 age group, they account for 64% of vocational school enrollments but only 40% of academic school students. (Because of the high prestige and earning power of many vocational school graduates, these numbers should not automatically be interpreted as *prima facie* evidence of educational inequality.) At the university level, the educational gap is still wide: about a quarter of all students are believed to derive from Afro-Asian backgrounds, up from 12% in 1972.

Education in grades K-12 and teacher training is centralized under the Ministry of Education and Culture which hires all teachers (who are state employees) and sets the curriculum and examinations. Local governmental councils and municipalities are responsible generally for construction and maintenance of buildings, provision of supplies and support services but are not directly concerned with the content and manner of instruction.

The Ministry sponsors a variety of adult education programs including, for example, intensive Hebrew courses (921 classes for over 15,000 adults in 1983). About 36,000 adults were also enrolled (in 1982) in vocational training courses operated by the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare.

Israel's extensive investments in higher learning are treated separately in the next chapter.

NOTE: Unusually copius and recent statistics on education and other dimensions of Israeli life may be found in the *Statistical Abstract of Israel* published annually by the Central Bureau of Statistics. Volume 34 for 1983, for example, contains over 900 pages of high-quality data with both Hebrew and English explanatory notations.

Chapter 2 Higher Education in Israel: an Overview

Higher education in Israel shares most goals with educational institutions elsewhere: training the nation's professional manpower, furthering national development through scientific research, developing the country's culture, advancing the boundaries of knowledge generally, and contributing knowledge and skills to the family of nations, particularly countries in the developing Third World. In addition, Israeli educational institutions have taken on key roles in the strengthening of Jewish culture and scholarship and in forging human links with the Jewish people everywhere.

Institutional Autonomy and State Funding

Higher education in Israel is, in fact, if not in name, a state system. Israel prides itself, subjectively, on the diversity, quality and independence of its institutions of higher learning. Academic freedom is, in fact, firmly rooted in Israeli society. Objectively, there is little question, however, that the role of the state—by exercise of the power of the purse—is decisive in three major areas: Today, about 70% of regular university operating budgets (down from 83% in 1973) comes in direct support from the central government. At the same time, tuition fees have been deliberately set low by Government policy and cover only about 7% of today's universities' budgets (down from over 9% in 1974–75). Finally, academic and administrative salaries—over 80% of total university budgets—are controlled by the Government through its bargaining power in all collective wage agreements governing the public and quasi-public sectors. (It is through the last device that universities in recent years have been able to make ends meet, keeping tenured staff employed but at the expense of serious wage erosion for both academic and administrative personnel.)

Israeli universities operate with two budgets: (1) variously called the ordinary, global, recurrent or current expenditure budget, and (2) the development budget for new buildings and major furnishings and equipment. In practice, the Government has been a prime funder of both budgets.

Table 2 illustrates the growth of ordinary budgets for the eight universities and the decisive role of public funding both before and after the establishment of the Planning and Grants Committee whose critical role is discussed in this chapter:

Table 2: Public Participation in Ordinary Budgets of Eight Universities, 1949–82

Year	Ordinary Budget Millions of Lirot (or Shekels)	Public Share in Millions of Lirot (or Shekels)	%
1949–50	—	0.1	—
1959–60	28.1(lirot)	12.8	45.5
1964–65	78.3	40.2	51.0
1969–70	241.3	162.1	67.0
1972–73	549.0	402.0	73.2
1974–75	1,075.0	852.0	79.8
1976–77	1,706.0	1,096.6	64.3
1977–78	2,192.8	1,365.1	62.3
1979–80	5,794.0	4,058.0	70.0
1980–81	2,931.5(shekels*)	2,172.0(shekels*)	74.0
1981–82	5,732.8	4,046.9	71.0

* 10 old lirot = 1 new shekel, according to a new monetary system adopted in 1981.
(Source: Annual Reports of Planning and Grants Committee)

As for the universities' development budgets, some 1,740 million shekels were budgeted in 1982–83 for construction and outfitting of facilities. Of this, 337.1 million shekels or 19% came in the form of public funds allocated by the Planning and Grants Committee. Donations, largely from overseas Jewry, still figure prominently in the construction of most university campuses.

Organization of Higher Learning

In Israeli usage, "higher education" means academic study for a degree after matriculation. "Post-secondary education" is vocational or professional training after secondary school and not requiring matriculation or completion of the *bagrut* examination.

At the top of the hierarchy, Israel has eight accredited, degree-granting universities whose first dates of instruction range from 1924, in the case of the Israel Institute of Technology (Haifa Technion), to 1976—Everyman's University. Enrollments in these institutions grew post-statehood from 2,572 students

in 1949–50 to over 64,000 in 1983. During the same period, degrees awarded rose from 239 to over 10,000 annually, including 7,400 bachelor's degrees. Today, approximately 11,000 students are pursuing master's degrees and 3,000 the doctorate as the universities seek to expand their graduate enrollments. In 1982, the percentage of Israeli workers having completed 16 or more years of schooling was 13.4%, believed to be the world's record. Israel's universities and their recent enrollments are listed in Table 3.

Table 3: Enrollments in Israel's Universities, 1982–83

	Total	Studying For First Degree
Hebrew University of Jerusalem	15,300	9,200
Israel Institute of Technology (Haifa Technion)	8,050	5,580
Tel Aviv University	16,770	11,000
Bar Ilan University	9,430	7,150
University of Haifa	6,105	5,300
Ben Gurion University of the Negev	4,570	3,730
Weizmann Institute of Science (Graduate-level only)	460	0
	60,685	41,960
Everyman's (Open) University	13,595	(equivalent to 3,500 full-time students)

(Source: Council for Higher Education, *The Higher Learning System in Israel*, 1983)

The distribution of studies in these institutions is summarized in Table 4.

Table 4: Distribution of University Studies and Degrees, by Major Field

	Major Field by % (For All Degrees)	Degrees Granted by %, 1981
Humanities and Education	31.1	27.9
Social Sciences and Law	31.2	32.3
Natural Sciences, Medicine, Agriculture	23.5	23.9
Engineering	14.2	15.9
	100.0	100.0

(Source: Council for Higher Education, *The Higher Learning System in Israel, 1983)*

Israel does not have liberal arts colleges which specialize in teaching undergraduates in quality programs leading toward the bachelor's degree. Rather, this function is performed in the same relatively high-cost universities

which undertake research, the promotion of economic and social development, and the training of professionals in law, medicine, business, and other fields. There is continuing discussion about the possibility of establishing liberal arts colleges in the 1990s and beyond.

In addition to the eight universities, Israel has a profusion of degree-granting and certificate or diploma-granting specialized institutions. In the former category are the Bezalel Academy of Arts and Design, Rubin Academy of Music and Dance, Jerusalem College of Technology and Ruppin Institute of Agriculture (academic courses only). These four institutions of post-secondary education are largely publicly-funded through annual allocations from the Planning and Grants Committee. Other degree-granting institutions include three teacher-training colleges: Jerusalem College for Women, Beit Berl and David Yellin—all supported by the Ministry of Education and Culture—and the Shenkar College of Textile Technology and Fashion—maintained by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. Finally, there are six regional community colleges or adult education centers (*michlalot*), each operated under the aegis of one of the fully-accredited universities; students enrolled there may earn credit toward a bachelor's degree awarded by that university under its regular terms and conditions.

In the category of certificate or diploma- (not degree) granting institutions are nursing schools, schools for physiotherapists, schools for radiology technicians, National Institute of Technological Training, Zinman College of Physical Education-Orde Wingate Institute, and the teacher training colleges (TTCs) which, because of their particular relationships to EU, require special mention.

There are still 43 TTCs throughout the country. It has long been the policy of the Ministry of Education and Culture, which is responsible for their budgets, to close or consolidate many of these and to strengthen and upgrade the balance. Currently, only three TTCs are authorized by the Council for Higher Education to award the bachelor's degree (the previously cited Beit Berl, David Yellin and Jerusalem College for Women).

TTCs are organized along the same lines as the nation's elementary-secondary school system; that is, there are colleges preparing teachers for the state secular schools, the state religious schools, the Arab public schools and the ultra-religious Hinuch Atzmai (Agudat Israel) schools. Some TTCs train teachers for kindergartens, nursery schools and day care centers where the required course of studies is a minimum of two years. Other TTCs offer a three-year program for primary school teachers or specialized programs for junior high school teachers. (Senior high school teachers must first earn a bachelor's degree and complete a post-bachelor's teacher training course in one of the universities before being awarded a teaching certificate.)

Council for Higher Education

After the State was established, there was an explosion of interest in establishing new universities. To cope with the problem of accreditation, the Knesset (parliament) enacted the Council for Higher Education Law in 1958. Members of the Council, appointed by the President of Israel upon the nomination of the Government (the Cabinet), serve for five-year terms. At least two-thirds of the 19–25 members must be full university professors. The Minister of Education and Culture serves as Council chairman and is a member *ex-officio*. The major function of the Council is to grant, with final Government approval, academic recognition to new institutions and to authorize them to award the appropriate degrees. The three universities which predated the formation of the Council, five newer universities (including Everyman's University) and the eight degree-granting institutions listed in Table 3 fall within the Council's authority, having obtained their recognition department by department, degree by degree.*

In 1972, under the leadership of Yigal Allon, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Education and Culture, the Council for Higher Education Law was radically strengthened to give the Council (in the form of what became in 1974 the PGC—Planning and Grants Committee) unprecedented powers to plan and budget for accredited higher education institutions. Henceforth, only an institution obtaining the approval of the Council would be able to open its doors or to continue its operations if it had not yet won academic recognition. Decisions of the Council on the opening of new institutions are subject to final approval by the Government while those involving academic recognition rest solely with the Council.

The law creating the Council states that accredited institutions are autonomous in academic and administrative matters within the limits of their budgets, thus providing the Government, as principal funding source, with virtually unchallengeable influence.

Like much else in Israel, higher education grew like topsy in "the seven fat years" between the Six-Day War of 1967 and the Yom Kippur War of 1973. For example, of the 1,214,000 square meters of university buildings constructed since 1964, three-fourths were started in the decade ending in 1974. Similarly from 1960–75, the academic staffs of Israeli universities grew by over 500%—an average annual growth rate of 10% —while from 1965–70

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* In the mid-Seventies, the presidents of Israel's seven universities formed a Committee of Heads of Higher Education Institutions for joint consultation and to negotiate with the Ministry of Finance and other governmental bodies as needed. As yet, the Committee has not seen fit to invite the president of Everyman's University to join their "club." (Nor does the head of Britain's Open University participate in a similar body in that country.)

their growth rate reached 18% annually. With the financial encouragement of the then Minister of Finance, Pinhas Sapir and an expansionist Labor Government, universities incurred large deficits in the building and operation of very substantial campuses. That was considered the best way to "establish facts", to build an infrastructure which would "demand completion" in subsequent state budgets.

Planning and Grants Committee

The mission of the PGC, which commenced operations in March 1974, was strongly supported by the atmosphere of austerity generated in the wake of the Yom Kippur War. In all events, budget deficits had to be eliminated and inter-university rivalries for direct funding by the Treasury had to be curbed. Gone were "the seven fat years."

The PGC, consisting of six members, at least four of whom must be distinguished academicians, is consciously modeled on the British University Grants Committee. With a prestigious full-time chairman and small professional staff (17 1/4 regular employees in 1981–82), the Committee has an impressive range of powers. As reaffirmed by the Government in 1977, these powers deserve citation in full for, important to this study, they describe much of what EU had to accomplish before it could begin to operate as well as the continuing control mechanism for most of EU's funding today:

Terms of Reference of the
PLANNING AND GRANTS COMMITTEE
Government Decision No. 666 of June 5, 1977

1. To be an independent body coming between the Government and the national institutions, on the one hand, and the institutions of higher education, on the other, in all matters relating to allocations for higher education. The Government and national institutions shall refrain from receiving requests or recommendations from the institutions of higher education or from any other source. They shall also refrain from allocating funds to an institution of higher education other than on the recommendation of the Planning and Grants Committee.
2. To submit the ordinary and development budget proposals for higher education, taking into account the needs of society and the State, whilst safe-guarding academic freedom and assuring the advancement of research and learning.
3. To have exclusive authority to allocate to the institutions of higher education the global approved ordinary and development budgets.
4. To submit to the Government and to the Council for Higher Education plans for the development of higher education, including their financing.
5. To encourage efficiency in the institutions of higher education and coordination between them with a view to preventing superfluous duplication and encouraging economy.
6. To ensure that budgets are balanced and that there are no deviations from them.
7. To express its opinion to the Council for Higher Education before the council reaches a decision on the opening of a new institution or a new unit having financial implications in an existing institution. The considered opinion of the PGC will include answers to the following questions:

(a) Is there a need for the new institution or for the new unit?
(b) What are the financial implications of opening the new institution or the new unit?
The PGC will determine whether the opening of the new unit has or has not financial implications.

As noted earlier, prior to the establishment of the PGC there was no organized state system of support for higher education. New universities obtained public funds simply by the unilateral agreement of powerful Ministers of Finance who effectively controlled the Government's budgets. Therefore, in its first six years, the PGC focused on establishing orderly budgeting procedures, insisted on balanced university budgets, elimination of past debts and prevention of new ones, and got control of costly development and construction programs.

Today, the PGC is widely regarded as pre-eminently successful in accomplishing these tasks and, at the same time, safeguarding the essential interests of Israeli higher education. Current PGC Chairman Professor Haim Harari, assessing the accomplishments of the PGC under his predecessor as "a veritable work of art", described the Committee's contribution in this way:

> "A delicate balance exists between academic freedom and public supervision, between freedom of action and the absence of freedom to squander, between the ability to plan and to influence and the lack of authority to issue orders and commands. In this time of acute inflation and severe budgetary exigencies, the existence of a body coming between the Government and the universities protects both Government and public against the danger of producing one more sector creating deficits and endless ferment. It also protects the universities against edicts and regulations by Government and other authorities which could hamper their activity and lead to long-term damage." (PGC, *Annual Report No. 7*)

A note is in order about one of the PGC's continuing priorities: The PGC has consistently promoted university involvement with the nation's primary and secondary schools. In 1979–80, for example, the Committee urged each university to centralize its activities on behalf of the schools, to do more for teacher training including refresher courses, to involve all academic staffs in addition to schools of education, to encourage more university students to volunteer for the nation's Perach Tutorial Project, and generally to create more contact between their campuses and the secondary schools.

Perhaps the best way to note the critical dependence of Israel's institutions of higher learning on public funds, as allocated by the PGC, is to look at the institutions' operating budgets overall treated in Table 5.

Tuition and Student Financial Assistance

Tuition fees are not set by the universities, but by the Government in

Table 5: Sources of Funding for University Ordinary Budgets, 1982–83

(millions of shekels, current prices	PGC	Tuition	Donations	Others*	Total
Eight universities	13,032.0	1,371.1	1,180.0	3,627.1	19,210.2
percentage share	(68%)	(7%)	(6%)	(19%)	(100%)
Other higher education institutions	293.6	34.2	25.2	26.2	399.2
Other expenditures (research, special projects)	1,169.6			80.4	1,250.0
	14,495.2	1,405.3	1,205.2	3,753.7	20,859.4
Overall percentage share	(69.5%)	(6.7%)	(5.8%)	(18%)	

* includes external research support, sale of services, etc. About half of these sums also derive from the public in the form of special or categorical grants from the PGC.
(Source: Council for Higher Education, Planning and Grants Committee, *The Higher Learning System in Israel*, 1983)

negotiations involving the Ministries of Finance and Education, and representatives of the universities and their student organizations.

Tuition is uniform throughout the country (but lower at EU; see Chapter Eleven), regardless of university, undergraduate or graduate level or field of study. Overall, student tuition covers no more than 20% of the actual cost of instruction and less than 7% of the universities' ordinary operating budgets.

Under a plan adopted by the Government in 1982, the level of tuition fees is determined annually in accordance with changes in the cost-of-living allowances paid to workers. In practice, this method of adjusting tuition fees in a period of rapid inflation has eroded the real value of this income to the universities to only half of what it had been in 1974–75. At the time of determination of the fee for 1983–84, the dollar equivalent of tuition for a full academic load was $615 annually. This is less, observe many critics, than the fees paid by many parents for nursery school. In truth, in a country noted for its relatively high costs, university tuition levels are properly considered a bargain.

Probably reflecting this fact of the relative affordability of higher education, student financial aid programs are not well developed in Israel. Rather, self-help and family support are the principal means of meeting university costs. A 1978–79 study of 39,010 students pursuing the first academic degree found that 72.9% were carrying a full academic load, 18.7% a 50–99% load, and only 6.5% were studying less than half time. Simultaneously, 61.7% were employed, including 24.4% full-time. Income from employment was cited by 36.5% of the students as their main source of income; parents and relatives

were the main providers for 28.6%, while spouses' work supported another 14.2%. Scholarship aid was cited by only 7.6% of the students as their mainstay. Other sources—including public entitlement programs for wounded veterans, etc.—accounted for 13.1% of the students.

The Students Loan Fund, with capital provided 50–50 by the Government and the six largest commercial banks, received (in 1981–82) only 6,300 loan applications—equal to about 10% of the nation's student body. Of these, only 3,840 loans aggregating 19.1 million shekels (then about $2 million) were approved. Thus, utilized loan funds accounted for only 7% of total university tuition income. (In 1979—80, loans were apparently in greater need for the Students Loan Fund received 11,765 applications and approved 7,812 loans of which 7,073 were actually taken out by students.)

More popular with students than loans is the Perach Tutorial Project operated by the Ministry of Education and Culture. In exchange for four hours per week of coaching pupils in about 200 "disadvantaged" schools designated by the Ministry, student volunteers receive tuition remission credits amounting to 60% of their tuition. In 1981–82, such "scholarships" were awarded to 6,000 students—10% of the country's university enrollment.

As this study is written, the Ministry of Finance is attempting to abrogate the tuition-setting agreement which it had accepted in 1982 (the "Katzav Committee" report) as valid until 1987. In place of a tuition fee in 1983–84 of approximately $615, the Ministry is seeking an immediate rise to $1,000 and a longer term rise to perhaps half the cost of education.*

Regardless of the exact outcome of this particular struggle, it seems apparent that tuition income will play a larger future role in financing Israeli higher education than it does today. While there is yet no agreement on how much the cost of higher education should be "privatized", there is an emerging consensus that public subsidies in areas like university education should be reduced and the burdens shared with student-users and their families. At the same time, there is renewed public discussion of the need to create more scholarship and loan funds and to explore tuition subsidies in exchange for post-graduation public service and employment in professions vital to the national interest.

The Future Under A Cloud

The system of higher learning in Israel is one of the society's proudest achievements. Few small countries have done so much in so short a period.

* As part of this same wide-reaching program of budget and subsidy cuts, the Ministry of Finance was also seeking an index-linked annual education fee for families with school-age children. Of 380,000 such families, the 80,000 lowest-income families would be exempt from the fee.

Table 6: Disinvestment in Israeli Higher Education, 1974–83

	1974	1983	Changes In %
Number of students	48,140	62,500	+30
Academic staff positions*	6,630	6,451	− 3
Administrative-technical staff positions*	9,120	8,094	−11
Non-wage expenditures	3,754	2,791	−26
Share of higher learning in Israel's regular state budget	7.9%	4.4%	−44
Size of development budgets** (1983 prices)	3,815	1,350	−65
Government share of university development budgets	1,897	370	−81
Government share of university regular budgets	82.9%	70%(est.)	−28

(Source: Council for Higher Education, Planning and Grants Committee)

* Some or most of this cut in formal positions (*teken*) is counterbalanced with devices familiar elsewhere: by hiring more workers on an hourly basis, by contracting out for services formerly performed in-house, by replacing regular staff with junior "external teachers," for example, recently-minted Ph.D.s who are hired temporarily without access to a tenure track. See Charles Hoffman, "Degrees of Deficit," *The Jerusalem Post Magazine*, November 11, 1983.

** In 1983 prices, for building projects including furniture and equipment, infrastructure and basic scientific apparatus.

Table 7: Higher Education and Israel's Gross National Product, 1974–80

	1974–75 %	1979–80 %
National expenditure on education as % of GNP	8.3	9.0
National expenditure on higher education as % of national expenditure on education	27.2	24.0
Current expenditure on higher education as % of current expenditure on education	25.1	23.0
Fixed capital formation in higher education as % of fixed capital formation in education	34.2	30.5

(Source: Council for Higher Education, Planning and Grants Committee, *Statistical Abstract*, 1980–81)

Yet, the quality of that achievement is today threatened by the state's increasingly precarious financial condition. In the words of the May 1983 latest annual report of the respected Planning and Grants Committee:

> "after . . . nine years of financial constraint, we have no alternative other than to determine unequivocally that the system of higher education in this country is now in deep crises, the consequences of which will most adversely, and in the near future, affect Israel's security, economy, culture and general well-being."

The basis for such dire predictions relate predominantly to money, for, clearly, higher education in Israel has been experiencing substantial financial disinvestment over the past decade. This is well illustrated in Tables 6 and 7.

Trends like these are unlikely to continue uninterrupted. Although exact future directions are difficult to discern, it seems fairly certain that there must be major changes in the manner of financing Israeli higher education. One good bet for such a change lies in the direction of greater reliance on student tuition—a movement already well advanced at Everyman's University, as we shall note in Chapter Eleven.

Chapter 3 Distance Education and the Open University

"Few innovations in higher education have met with more ready acceptance by a diversity of people and institutions than non-traditional study and its various forms—external degree, Extended University, Open University, University Without Walls, and others. Although the movement that gave birth to these models and plans is difficult to define with any precision, people share a common understanding about the nature of this new concept of education. Its greatest departure from traditional education is its explicit recognition that education should be measured by what the student knows rather than how or where he learns it. Beyond that it builds upon two basic premises—that opportunity should be equal for all who wish to learn and that learning is a lifelong process unconfined to one's youth or to campus classrooms."

—Commission on Non-Traditional Study (U.S.A.)

The literature of non-traditional study is vast yet expanding exponentially. This is natural given the explosive growth of part-time learning around the globe. "Lifelong learning," "the learning society," and similar phrases titillate educators and policymakers alike while 60 million or more persons, perhaps half in the United States, pursue some form of organized non-traditional higher learning. In the U.S., for example, almost half of all postsecondary education enrollments are now attributed to part-time degree seekers, a practice largely alien to traditional higher education only a few decades ago.

In this chapter, we shall consider, albeit briefly, the origins, rationale, characteristics and overall evaluations of "distance education" globally and one of its particular forms, the "open university." This survey is offered as a means of traversing the large gulf between the kinds of traditional university

education represented in the chapter we have just concluded and the innovations about to be described in the balance of this study.

There is no commonly accepted definition of "distance education" any more than there is of "non-traditional study." Correspondence education, home study, independent study, open learning, external study, outreach, off-campus study, etc. are all loosely subsumed in the concept. Perraton's (1982) definition of distance education is, however, one of the most concise: "an educational process in which a significant portion of the teaching is conducted by someone removed in space and/or time from the learner."

An early form of distance education was correspondence education, which grew greatly with the development of modern postal services. Some date the earliest distance education to the 1850s and the correspondence "teaching letters" published by Toussaint-Langenscheid. Such forms of distance learning appealed to many who, for financial, geographical, academic, medical or social reasons, could not avail themselves of existing educational programs featuring conventional or direct teaching techniques.

Max Rowe, about whom we shall hear a good deal in the pages to follow, has written cogently on the characteristics of distance (or indirect) education contrasted with those of conventional (or direct) teaching. The following chart, based on several of Rowe's papers, distinguishes characteristics of the two approaches:

Conventional Teaching (Direct)	Distance Education (Indirect)
1. Face to face, from teacher to student with opportunities for direct interaction	Indirect communication by media with little or no direct interaction
2. Suitable for transmitting norms and attitudes; (e.g., father to son, master to apprentice)	Suitable for transmitting knowledge and, to a limited extent, skills
3. Teacher is presenter of information which is often chosen by himself	Teacher is expert, tutor, manager of instruction usually planned and produced by others
4. Compulsory attendance is the norm	Relies on high motivation and self-discipline
5. Classroom is the locus of teaching activities	Learning occurs wherever the learner chooses to study
6. Definite schedule and rhythms of teaching	Self-paced at any time of day or week
7. A social process in association with others	Mostly a solitary process
8. Labor intensive	Capital intensive

9. Decentralized; costs rise with increasing numbers of learners	Centralized; costs fall with the increase of learners
10. Teacher-pupil ratio is generally low	Ratio is generally high
11. Depends on competence of the individual teacher with emphasis on the act of teaching	Draws on greatest experts working in a team but focuses on the individual student's learning needs and styles

Keegan (1980), a close student of distance education, lists many of the same elements as Rowe and adds three more: educational organization, to distinguish it from private study; the extensive use of media, especially print, to unite the teacher and learner over the educational substance of the studies; an "industrial" format, to take advantage of the benefits of the division of labor, mechanization, automation, mass production and centralized direction.

At first, distance education was primarily directed to "self-improvement" and knowledge for its own sake. Over time, career improvement and vocational development were stressed. Gradually, distance education techniques and philosophy were embraced in the drive to widen access to a university education, particularly by the university extension movement of the 1860s and 1870s in the U.S. and U.K. The first university-sponsored correspondence program is variously dated; some cite Illinois State University in 1874, others the University of Chicago in 1891. The distinction of being the first distance teaching university (DTU hereafter in this study) specifically set up for that purpose, however, goes to the University of South Africa, founded in 1946.

But it is from the Open University of the United Kingdom, today the largest university in Britain and the flagship open university of all nations, that much of the interest in our subject originates. For it is "OU" in Walton Hall, in the city of Milton Keynes, that acts as Mecca (some would also say Lourdes) for educators throughout the world. Following its example, and often with OU's active assistance, open universities have now spread to Spain, Iran, Federal Republic of Germany, Israel, Pakistan, Alberta Province-Canada, Venezuela, Costa Rica, Thailand, People's Republic of China, Sri Lanka and The Netherlands, in that chronological order. Japan, Nigeria and half a dozen other nations are also in various stages of developing similar institutions.

Chartered in 1969 and opening its doors for instruction in 1971, OU was originally the product of egalitarian, Socialist political ideology which propounded the needs of the working class for higher learning that could not be denied by circumstances of health, finances, place of residence, age or prior educational attainment. OU's political father was Prime Minister Harold Wilson who, while leader of the opposition Labor Party, had championed an "University of the Air", bringing together correspondence education, the

(2) openness with regard to *place* (and sometimes pace) of study. While there may be voluntary study centers or even residential summer schools, there is no central campus or specific time and place of study; every home can be a "campus" if it can be reached by the mail service;

(3) openness with regard to *studies*. Generally, there are few required subjects and emphasis is placed on broad, interdisciplinary studies, independent choice of courses and application of effort. Guided self-learning, not teaching, is the principal mode of instruction;

(4) openness with regard to *completion*, deferment, temporary discontinuation or termination of studies. While many efforts are made to assist students who seek a degree to earn one, students are also aided to re-enter and continue their studies at any time, without embarrassment, criticism or sense of failure.

While much more might be noted about distance education and open universities, one final characteristic cannot be overlooked: studying in this framework is *difficult*, taxing the initiative, self-discipline and persistence of students in a way that most conventional studies do not. In the words of OU senior researcher, Naomi McIntosh (1979), distance education is "a very hard way to learn and puts a heavy premium on literacy, the use of the written word, and the ability to be tough minded and study independently. In a 'good' world the educationally disadvantaged would go to Oxbridge and the elite to the OU."

Desmond Keegan and Greville Rumble (1982), in an "interim appraisal" of DTUs over the decade 1971–81, conclude that such universities can be credited with a number of notable accomplishments:

- "They enable new target groups who cannot attend a conventional university to enter the higher education sector.
- They can solve the problem of drop-out and produce graduates in significant numbers.
- They can help meet national, local and individual needs.
- The quality of their learning materials can be very high.
- They are potentially more cost-efficient and cost-effective than conventional universities.
- Cost-benefit analysis will tend to favour the DTUs because students are able to study at the same time as they are earning and contributing to GNP.
- Their degrees are gaining acceptance from conventional universities, employers, and the community at large."

We shall now consider how Israel came to experiment with the building of its own DTU, less than five years after Britain's pioneering effort pointed the

electronic media, publishers and others to help "democratize" British higher education.

With his idea opposed by many in academia, the media and the civil service, Wilson hand-picked a skilled political leader to implement the proposal—Miss Jennie Lee, widow of the late Labor minister, Aneurin Bevan. As Secretary of State for the Arts within the Department of Education and Science, Miss Lee skillfully steered OU over many shoals and helped to create an institution based on her vision of the highest academic status, degree-granting, staffed by fully qualified university professors and quickly earning the prestige to warrant being a full-fledged and intellectually uncompromised university. The development of non-degree programs, observes Rumble (1982), was judiciously "postponed rather than dropped." Lord Perry, OU's first head (Vice Chancellor) acknowledged, years after its founding: "We made a clear decision not to innovate but to stick to the traditional fields of study typical of conventional universities," a decision driven by the "overriding need to achieve academic respectability." (As we shall see in the following chapter, all these were decisions and lessons not lost on the founders and shapers of Israel's Everyman's University.)

Accommodating Miss Lee's and Lord Perry's insistence on the highest academic standards, OU nevertheless differs substantially from traditional universities. According to Rumble, OU clearly meets the definition of an innovative institution:*

In what sense are open universities "open?" The following four characteristics are the ones most frequently cited in the literature:

(1) openness with regard to *person*, regardless of prior academic qualifications and without any entrance examination. Essentially, it is the student, not the institution, who controls the decision of enrollment;

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* Probing more closely into the nature of OU's innovativeness, Glatter and Morgan (1978) observe: " . . . the Open University really comprises at least two separate major innovations in the British context. Firstly a university offering universal access both into the institution and through its courses; secondly, a national education institution based predominantly on distance teaching methods. The two innovations are obviously related up to a point, but they are also partly conflicting . . . the fact that they happened to be joined together in one institution may have owed more than most innovations to historical accident. There is clearly no necessary connection between them: for instance, even where geographical access is a prime consideration, requiring distance teaching, it does not necessarily imply an open admissions policy."

"The vast majority of its students are adults, many of whom would not be allowed to study at traditional institutions of higher education because they lack the normal academic requirements for entry while many others, even if qualified, could not do so because of the constraints of time and place imposed by traditional educational institutions, besides the financial problems that stem from family or similar commitments that most of them will have. The Open University teaches at a distance, using a combination of correspondence teaching and the new educational technology to provide students with flexibility to study in their own homes and, to some extent (within limits imposed by particular systems), at their own pace."

way but fully a decade before Keegan and Rumble's encouraging evaluation could become available to policymakers.

Chapter 4 EU: Establishment and Early Years

"Everyman's University would not be a campus: it would be a learning resource for all of Israel; the whole country would be its campus, and any home or meeting place could be one of its classrooms. It would be a new kind of educational instrument, not quite like any other in existence, designed to serve the particular needs and most efficiently use the resources of the country."

—The Schramm Commission, 1972

The establishment of Everyman's University* involves a large vision, daring private sector philanthropy, enthusiastic leaders, effective executors and an exemplary model of successful international educational and technological transfer.

As noted in the previous chapter, Israeli higher education grew extraordinarily in quality as well as in numbers in the two and a half decades following the proclamation of statehood in 1948. Much of Israel's success in absorbing waves of new immigrants, in building a relatively advanced technological economy and in securing the nation's defense are widely attributed to heavy investments in education at all levels. Although considered by some to be "too European," "too elitist," "too expensive" for a still-pioneering country, the universities nevertheless enjoyed widespread public support in Jewish tradition and in pragmatic public policy. Various municipalities (e.g.,

* "Everyman's" is the name used in English-language materials ever since the University was conceived. However, the Israelis have always called it "Ha-Universita Ha-Ptucha," The Open University. To save space in this narrative we shall designate it EU—in contrast to Britain's Open University—OU.

Haifa and Beersheva) determined to build universities as a key to local economic growth and popular prestige. Students accelerated their efforts to obtain university degrees for both professional and personal fulfillment.

By 1970, however, it had become apparent that the existing university and teacher training college system was not meeting the needs of significant portions of the population. Among such underserved groups were persons required to work full-time and therefore unable to undertake full-time studies; persons living in development towns or rural areas relatively far removed from the urban locations of Israel's universities; homemakers, particularly those with large families or coming from a traditional value system which mitigated against women leaving the home; the severely handicapped and disabled; and, especially, the vast majority of all Israelis who had never completed the tough *bagrut* matriculation examination, a prerequisite for university admission.

The Role of Political Sponsors in Radical Innovation

Both the British and the Israeli open universities owe their creation to exceptionally powerful sponsors in the political arena. Prime Minister Harold Wilson is generally acknowledged as the father of the former while Israel's War of Independence hero, Palmach army commander and Labor Party leader, Yigal Allon, served a similar role in mastering and accelerating the processes of educational and political decisionmaking in Israel.

Whether Yigal Allon was the very first to champion the idea of an Israeli open university cannot be readily established, but there is no doubt that his was the driving force that made EU a reality in near-record time. While a graduate student in England, Allon discussed with his friend and Socialist International colleague, Harold Wilson, leader of the Labor Party, the latter's idea, first exposed in 1963, of a "University of the Air" which would vastly expand opportunity for higher education, particularly for Britain's working class.

By the time Allon had become Israel's Minister of Education and Culture and Deputy Prime Minister in 1969, Wilson had become Britain's Prime Minister, and the British Open University was about to be launched.

Allon determined to make advances in higher education the hallmark of his tenure in office, just as previous Ministers had pioneered large reforms in elementary and secondary education. Subsequently, as noted in the previous chapter, Allon became the first Minister of Education to undertake formal State responsibility for the financing of higher education. By greatly expanding the power of the existing Council for Higher Education to plan and budget for the universities and by supporting what soon became the powerful Planning and Grants Committee, Allon put his large personal imprint on Israeli higher education. Moreover, he encouraged Elad Peled, then Director-General

of his Ministry, and Shmuel Bendor, the head of its Foreign Relations Department, to visit Jennie Lee, Harold Wilson's Secretary of Education and the principal champion of OU, and to study the fledgling British university in Walton Hall. (Peled subsequently became EU's first honorary secretary and an ex-officio representative of the Ministry on the EU Council. Bendor became a long-term booster of EU and serves today as a respected consultant to the PGC and a member of EU's Executive Committee.)

Most crucially, Allon sought out private philanthropic resources to launch EU, realizing that his Government colleagues would better warm to the idea of a new university if it entailed no immediate budgetary outlays and if the initiative for such a venture came from a body as prestigious and above reproach as Hanadiv ("The Benefactor")—the Rothschild Foundation which had, for almost 100 years, done so much to develop the land and institutions of the Jewish community in Palestine. Thus began a series of consultations among Allon, the Rothschilds in London and Max Rowe, the enormously able and versatile Secretary-General of the Foundation operating out of Geneva and, frequently, from Tel Aviv.

Too little has been written about the pioneering philanthropic work of the Rothschild Foundation, particularly their work in Israel. Two chapters of that extraordinary work require mention at this point, for they help to explain why Rothschild's subsequent championing of the EU concept became so decisive a factor.

The Instructional Television Center

In 1963 the Foundation launched the Instructional Television Center (ITC) to bring the benefits of the television age to the country's classrooms and to Israelis of all ages through various informal cultural offerings. What is most unusual in this venture is that educational TV preceded the introduction of general TV and, to this day, has a monopoly on daytime broadcasting. Moreover, coming first, it attracted first-class talent who were eager to "get in on the ground floor" of the new medium; Israeli ETV did not have to compete for the best personnel as is the case in many other countries.

By March 1966, ITC was on the air with the enthusiastic backing of the Ministry of Education and Culture, which assumed responsibility for setting program priorities, overseeing content and aiding the schools to work the ITC's offering into their curriculum. In this formative period, the Foundation's secretary-general, Max Rowe, served concurrently as ITC's operating head.

In 1971, the Israeli Knesset voted to accept financial responsibility for the Instructional Television Center, and to keep it independent of the Israel Broadcasting Authority as an integral operation of the Ministry of Education, and to guarantee it access to the nation's sole TV channel during the daylight hours until 5:30 p.m.

Today, 90% of classes in grades 5–9 regularly view ITC programs, as do day care centers, kindergartens and other institutions. Daylight programming runs eight hours a day or 44 hours a week, unusually high for a country with only a single TV channel. Some 250 workers and a budget of $6 million enable ITC to perform far better than anemic ETV counterparts elsewhere.*

Center for Educational Technology

Even before the ITC was fully ratified and applauded by the Knesset, the Rothschild Foundation had launched another experiment—the Center for Educational Technology (CET). This Center (still partially financed by the Foundation and with Max Rowe still acting as Chairman of the Board) was established to improve the quality of teaching and learning through the use of the latest educational technologies. CET serves all levels of the schools and various army training programs. Based on individualization in the instructional process, it has pioneered many developments, particularly in Computer-Assisted Testing and Drill, computer literacy and electronics home study. In school year 1982–83, almost 200,000 Israeli pupils and adults participated in various CET projects and over half a million workbooks, textbooks, kits, games and children's dictionaries were published and sold. CET also includes the Technological Institute for the Blind to develop special aids, methods and instrumentation for the blind and visually impaired.

As we shall see, the fact that ITC had both expertise and unutilized production capacity and that CET was already well advanced in building home study kits for students and in adapting computers for educational purposes, and that all three institutions had common Rothschild Foundation origins, contributed greatly to EU's fast takeoff in its early years.

The Lifson Committee on Post-Secondary Education

While these various Rothschild initiatives were registering solid achievements and winning the respect of the nation's policymakers, other strands of the policymaking process were being woven into a launching pad for Everyman's University.

On May 5, 1970, the Council for Higher Education and the Ministry of Education set up an ad hoc Committee on Post-Secondary Education, under the chairmanship of Professor Schneuer Lifson of the Weizmann Institute, to review all aspects of postsecondary education except the work of the universities. Nine months later, the Lifson Committee recommended, among other things, an Open University based on the British model and run in cooperation

* See Irene G. Mescheloff, "Educational TV: By Hook or Crook," *Newsview*, August 23, 1983, pp. 18–19, and David Frank, "A Choice of Channels," *Jerusalem Post*, October 7, 1983, pp. 10–11.

with a proposed new network of degree-granting liberal arts colleges. In the Committee's view, the proposed Open University should utilize the latest learning technologies to offer solid academic education leading to the bachelor's degree. In that way, it could perform a critical role less than well-fulfilled by the existing universities—the training of science and mathematics teachers for Israel's secondary schools. While its ideas regarding new liberal arts colleges are still discussed from time to time, this aspect of the Lifson recommendations, unlike those involving an Open University, has not yet come to pass.

The Schramm Commission

On September 7, 1971, the Rothschild Foundation approved the establishment and funding of an "enquiry commission" to assess "the feasibility, practicability and economics of an Everyman's University for Israel," offering "a method of individualized higher studies, with the help of technology, correspondence and tutorial guidance." Headed by Wilbur Schramm, then Director of the Institute for Communication Research at Stanford University, and including Professor David G. Hawkridge, Director of the Institute of Educational Technology of Britain's OU, and Harold Howe II, Vice President of the Ford Foundation for Education and Research (and former U.S. Commissioner of Education), the Commission saw its work of independent review as answering the multiple questions of "how to make (1) educational opportunities more accessible, (2) aspirants to various forms of advanced education more successful, and (3) educational institutions more flexible in serving the entire cross section of Israeli society." Of central concern to the Schramm Commission—a touchstone against which their recommendations and the subsequent development of EU may be compared and evaluated—was the fact that significant portions of Israel's "communities of the East" or " 'Orientals,' as well as the Arab population in general, do not succeed in, or are not well served by, the institutional arrangements that exist."

Recognizing that the phrase "Everyman's University" pre-dated the establishment of the Commission and was, at best, imprecise, Schramm and his colleagues sought to suggest context and direction which were particularly addressed to the needs of Israel's educationally underserved populations. After visiting Israel in January 1972 and preparing a draft report which was critiqued by dozens of Israeli educators and officials during further studies in Israel in July, the Schramm Commission reported publicly on September 15, 1972. Since the Commission is so frequently cited in EU literature as instrumental in shaping the fledgling University and, more importantly, since the reality of EU in 1984 appears to differ from the Commission's recommendations in several significant ways, we shall cite the Commission's views in some detail.

The Commission understood that education alone could not overcome the disadvantages of "Oriental" Jews and Arabs but felt that the proposed EU could make important contributions to the solutions of problems in at least three areas: (1) the upgrading of the country's corps of 35,000 elementary and secondary teachers who alone can "provide more effective learning opportunities for the less advantaged children who come from non-European cultures"; (2) giving a "second chance" to students of all ages who, for a variety of reasons, have not completed secondary school or who have not passed the *bagrut* matriculation examination and who, with special help, might be able to complete further education and attain positions of special skill and leadership; and (3) offering continuing education to all those able to profit from but unable to enroll in the traditional institutions, for example, members of kibbutz and moshav rural settlements, members of the armed forces, employed persons, and those living in remote, outlying areas of the country.

After surveying a variety of prior efforts to serve the disadvantaged, alternative institutions and new proposals, like those of the Lifson Committee, the Commission concluded that greater effort and expense would be required to modify existing institutions than to create something new. In particular, it saw little hope of Israeli universities, "rooted as they are in the long and honourable tradition of European scholarship," offering the kind of flexible programs needed. Accordingly, the Schramm Commission recommended not a mere Israeli translation or transplantation of the British Open University but a new institution "more broadly derived from the needs of Israel, more truly indigenous to the Israeli culture and the brave new experience of reassembling a nation, than even the present universities of Israeli," an institution which would:

- offer a real alternative, rather than a duplication, of existing Israeli universities;
- serve a wide spectrum of needs beyond the secondary school, and also offer a "second chance" to deserving students to complete secondary school;
- work with innovative methods of education, including combinations of printed materials, correspondence courses, audio-visual aids of all kinds, and less formal group activities than are typically found in Israeli educational institutions;
- offer learning opportunities to students where they are, when they need them, without the usual limitations of age, place or traditional structures of education;
- work in close cooperation with the Instructional Television Centre, the

Centre for Educational Technology, and other agencies concerned with technological change;

- at the appropriate stage in its development, offer the necessary courses to enable a student to earn a first academic degree, but meanwhile consider its first tasks to be the priorities previously stated—a "second chance" for deserving secondary students, further training for teachers already in service, and courses beyond the secondary level for Israeli adults wherever they live—and allow itself a little time to evolve into the kind of additional university Israel needs most.

The last recommendation—of a lesser priority accorded to the offering of academic degrees—is repeated at several points in the Commission's report and, as we shall see, became the major single difference in direction taken by EU after its launching. Not that Schramm and his colleagues wanted EU to become less than a "university" but rather that they defined it "in a sense that goes back to the ancient linguistic roots of the word, signifying the wholeness and entirety of knowledge, . . . in the sense that Alfred North Whitehead characterized the medieval European university—a place where the adventure of action meets the adventure of thought." For the Commission, recognized university status would come in the indeterminate future and, in any case, should be sought only if "the openness of the institution is not prejudiced and . . . its ability to serve groups requiring courses below university level is not diminished." The Commission presciently expressed the fear that EU may "strive to enhance its own academic image rather than serving the communities it was originally designed to serve."

The Commission made numerous other observations and recommendations which seem to have been implemented in the EU as we observe it today:

- modular courses to fit different needs and available study time, "without requiring commitment to intensive work for an entire year per course";
- television should be used only where "strictly necessary (rather than becoming a 'television university');" "more television, more radio, more films, more instructional talk of any kind have never solved basic educational problems anywhere in the world. Solutions lie not in the media, but in the instruction for which they are used and the instructional systems of which they are a part;"
- study groups and the utilization of existing institutions were preferred over putting scarce resources into "establishing an extensive network of tutorial centers that might grow into formal institutions;"
- cultural enrichment courses, rather than specific programs to upgrade job skills, were given priority, although some vocationally-related courses

"in such fields as accounting and management with a special relationship to the economic development of the country" were also recommended;
- a variety of actions to strengthen the inservice training of teachers;
- special efforts to help young soldiers improve their educational performance during their years of compulsory military service.

The Commission concluded by recommending to the Rothschild Foundation a seven-year EU pilot project at a projected total cost of about $8 million.

In retrospect, we can see in the Rothschild Foundation's customary process of using independent and prestigious commissions of enquiry both politically astute and educationally creative devices for the launching of major new endeavors. This is particularly true in the case of the Schramm Commission which, in the course of its study, consulted several dozen educators, including heads of the traditional universities and public officials, all of whom served both to modify its final report and to defuse potential opposition.

As Robin Twite, first Secretary of EU, has written, the prevailing attitude among Israeli academics to the launching and subsequent report of the Schramm Commission's inquiry was one of indifference tempered by an academic conservatism's disdain for innovation.

Moreover, 1972 was still very much part of "the seven fat years;" a prospective Everyman's University did not then pose much of a claim on generally ample governmental resources. Overall, EU wouldn't do much harm and, besides, its entire initial cost was being borne by the Rothschild Foundation, went the reasoning of the time. Moreover, since Schramm gave highest priority to the inservice training and academic upgrading of the nation's school teachers—a job that the universities were acknowledged to be doing poorly and which carried little prestige in academia—Everyman's University was welcomed to the "market."

An additional step was taken by the Foundation before it committed itself to the launching of the EU project: B.S. Braithwaite, a Cambridge, England-based former educational advisor to the World Bank, was enlisted to act as a "referee," that is, to write a critique of the Schramm Commission's report.

Braithwaite reported on March 24, 1973, with high praise of and general concurrence with the Schramm proposals. Seconding their emphasis on disadvantaged population groups as the proper focus of the new institution ("it must at all times be remembered that the predominant objective is to provide for the disadvantaged"), Braithwaite differed with Schramm in only two significant respects: (1) EU "should allow for more personal contact and guidance between students and mentors than is proposed" (by the Commission) since disadvantaged students require much encouragement and personal support, group work, counseling, etc.; and (2) EU must not operate "at sub-university level for some years" but, from its inception, must be "unambiguously a

university with university conditions and status." In Braithwaite's view—subsequently adopted by Max Rowe, the Rothschild Foundation and other shapers of EU—the Schramm proposals not to offer degree-credit courses at the outset but rather in the undefined future would militate against attracting able staff, abort prospects for good research, and make it unlikely that the Council for Higher Education would grant EU recognition as a legimitate institution of higher education.

Following the release of the Schramm Commission report on September 15, 1972, events moved rapidly by any measure of educational and governmental innovation. On April 25, 1973, the Rothschild Foundation formally committed itself to the funding of EU for a seven-year period with an aggregate grant of $5 million for construction, equipment and operations, provided that the Government would gradually assume financial responsibility for the University. Less than three weeks later, Education Minister Allon was able to inform the Foundation that Prime Minister Golda Meir and the Council on Higher Education were both behind the project.

On August 19, the Government (Israel's Cabinet) unanimously authorized the establishment of the University and approved a draft agreement between the Foundation and the Ministry of Education and Culture. On October 2, the Council for Higher Education unanimously approved EU as a Pilot Project along the lines proposed by the Foundation and on the understanding that EU's initial concentration was to be on teacher upgrading, i.e. "preparing teachers in possession of diplomas for their first academic degree".

Scarcely slowed by the Yom Kippur War, Minister of Education Allon, on November 11, 1973, endorsed EU's operating principles in a detailed letter to Dorothy de Rothschild. The main points of this agreement include: Registration of EU in Israel as an incorporated charitable trust; governance by a Council, initially composed of seven members, including two nominated by the Ministry of Education; confirmation of the right of the Foundation to choose the chairman of the Council, chairman of the Council's Executive Committee and chief executive officer, after consultation with the Minister; appointment of an Academic Committee by the Council after approval by the Ministry and in consultation with the Council for Higher Education; an increasing scale of Government funding, beginning with nothing in the first three years to total funding at the end of seven; adoption of the same salary scales, grade systems and tuition fees in effect at other universities; payment to staff of a special allowance in lieu of tenure; and promises of assured cooperation between the new University and the Institutional Television Center, Center for Educational Technology and the Israel Broadcasting Authority. Allon's letter also assured Mrs. de Rothschild that the Cabinet meeting at which the EU idea was approved was "one of the most stimulating and rewarding events which I have yet experienced in this forum. The ministers

displayed great interest in the functions and goals of the university and were unanimous in recognizing the benefits which (EU) would confer upon Israeli society." He concluded that the Yom Kippur War meant that many young Israelis would be mobilized for long periods. Under these circumstances, EU had an even greater role than envisioned earlier.

In November and December 1973, Max Rowe, as President-designate of the University, conducted one of his characteristically careful personal surveys, this time of DTUs in the United States which culminated in his report "Open Learning Systems in the USA". Then, on April 14, 1974, EU formally incorporated by filing its Memorandum of Association.

Initially, EU set up temporary offices adjacent to CET until two new floors could be added to one of the two buildings that the two organizations today share in common—with joint library, computers, audio-visual, publishing, storage and other support services. (CET and EU adjoin ITC in an educational park in Tel Aviv's Ramat Aviv section which also houses Tel Aviv University, the Museum of the Diaspora, the Mu'zum Ha-Aretz complex and a variety of technical institutes and government scientific bodies.)

Under Rowe's leadership (and while continuing as Secretary-General of the Rothschild Foundation), key staff were quickly recruited. Professor Schneuer Lifson became Academic Rector and first Chairman of the Academic Advisory Committee. Dr. Yona Peless, Director of Rothschild's CET agreed to take on a concurrent responsibility as head of EU's Department of Educational Technology. Robin Twite took leave from the British Council in Tel Aviv to serve as EU's Secretary. And Professor Maxim Bruckheimer, also of Weizmann and a former dean and professor of mathematics at Britain's Open University, accepted a two-year assignment as first EU Director of Studies. A blue-ribbon leadership team had been assembled and recruitment of the first academic staff could begin.

Robin Twite and Fred A. Nelson (see Bibliography) have described the halcyon early days of EU with emphasis on staff recruitment, selection, and training (which included staff visits to DTUs in England, Germany, Canada and the U.S.) and the major assistance rendered to EU by the Open University Consultancy Service at Walton Hall. American authorities such as Samuel B. Gould and Cyril Houle were also consulted, while training programs were conducted in Tel Aviv by Professors Edward Stasheff of the University of Michigan and by Bruckheimer.

In the interest of space, we may telescope these early days, stressing one key point: It cannot be emphasized strongly enough that EU's formative years were decisively influenced by a crucial difference between itself and Britain's Open University. While the latter was founded in 1969 by Royal Charter and empowered to award degrees at the outset, even including the doctorate, EU came into being without recognition as an institution of higher learning and

without authority to award even the bachelor's degree. Four years of exceedingly arduous, even frenzied, work would have to transpire before the fledgling institution could earn even a minimal level of legitimacy among Israel's more established universities. A measure of that work is described in Chapter Six, on EU's System of Studies.

Some additional key events in EU's early development may be briefly noted:

1976	July 1	Avraham Ginzburg (Head of the Department of Computer Science, The Technion) becomes Executive Vice President
	October 17	EU opens first five courses for 2,200 students
1977	March 1	Ginzburg becomes EU President; Max Rowe elected Vice Chancellor and Chairman of EU's Executive Committee; Yona Peless made Vice President for Development and Technology
1980	June 18	Council for Higher Education recognizes EU as an institution of higher education authorized to award the B.A.
	July 6	Government (Cabinet) endorses EU's recognition by the CHE
	July 23	Minister of Education Hammer awards EU its formal "Certificate of Recognition"
1982	January	EU publishes its "Statutes and General Regulations"
	September 6	EU awards degrees to its first 41 graduates

Goal-Setting: An Evolutionary Process

Having surveyed the history of EU's founding and early years, it would be well to make explicit the goals of the University as they were stated at the outset and as EU sees them today.

Originally, as we have seen, the Schramm Commission recommended a focus primarily on the disadvantaged. Toward that end, the upgrading of Israel's corps of school teachers was to receive top priority, followed by providing a "second chance" to students who had not completed the matriculation examination. The continuing education and cultural elevation of the Israeli people was recommended as a third priority. University status and the award of academic degrees were to follow only after some years.

Commenting on EU's early days, Max Rowe acknowledged that the University would concern itself initially with teacher training and second-chance

adult education, but pointed out that the EU had never laid down broad policy directions: "This may have been a wise, intuitive act. It enables EU to gain some experience and orientation and retain much needed flexibility in the formative period." At the same time, wrote Rowe, EU had to embrace the basic goals of any true university:

> " . . . to remain committed to thought and experiment; to search for basic knowledge in freedom; to inculcate the discipline of intellectual disciplines; to create men with free, independent minds; to give continuity to the values of the community; to be path-finders, if not revolutionaries, in breaking new ground in subject matters and method; to face the basic problems of the community, and render public service . . . to be relevant to the main issues whether they relate to defense, economics, integration or others."

While never rejecting or specifically downgrading service to the disadvantaged as the raison d'etre of the University, EU geared itself in practice primarily to the imperatives of winning academic recognition and degree-granting status from the Council for Higher Education. Having won that recognition, EU today defines its formal aims in terms much closer to traditional academia than those recommended by Schramm and his colleagues. In the University's "Statutes and General Regulations" of January 1982, EU states its aims as follows:

"a. to maintain facilities for study and to promote scientific research; to promote and disseminate education and knowledge through teaching and research;
b. to make academic degrees accessible to large segments of the public and, inter alia, to conduct courses not requiring regular attendance at a central teaching facility;
c. to provide persons who have interrupted their studies with a suitable study framework to broaden their education or improve their vocational skills;
d. to assist in raising the educational level of teachers;
e. to promote the development of study material and innovative teaching methods, including individual tutoring, by means of the various media (postal services, telephone, radio, T.V. or computer), meetings with students, or any other manner."

In actual practice, as we shall see in the following chapters, EU does *more* to serve the disadvantaged, to train teachers and to offer second chances to persons unable to benefit from regular study programs than any of its conventional academic counterparts. Whether it does *enough* and whether it lives up to its full potential is clearly a matter of judgment and a theme we shall return to in the concluding section of this study.

Chapter 5 The Students

"... today I am receiving a B.A. with honors, although I do not have matriculation and not even a high school education. At 15, I was 'thrown out' of high school. I decided to return to studies after 15 successful years in the 'university of life.' Everyman's University, like its name, is open to everyone, with no requirement of prior certification ... Throughout our studies, [the EU faculty] supported and encouraged us. They see in us the person behind the student number. They kept an open door and a sympathetic ear for us."

—Nili Sandrov, Graduating Class of 1982

"Our souls thirsted for learning, but the necessity to make a living and to continue work did not allow us to study in the conventional fashion ... This institution has ... proved that learning and work need not compete with each other ... and that one can enjoy both of them together ... Every home became a small campus with the University atmosphere enveloping and encompassing every home."

—Haim Avizror, Graduation Class of 1983

EU's student body has grown rapidly since studies began in September 1976. This despite the difficulty of distance education, the multiple opportunities for study elsewhere, and the newness and, initially, non-accredited nature of the EU experiment. Table 8 depicts this rapid growth.

A closer look at these enrollments reveals the overwhelmingly academic nature of the EU program: over 90% of the students are enrolled in formal academic courses while less than 1,500 (during Semester 15) pursued pre-academic, vocational or general knowledge offerings. Three years earlier, in Semester 8, over 2,100 students studied in such programs. Not included in these statistics are students in three ten-week general knowledge programs: "The Kindergarten Age", "The First Years of Life", and "Smart Consumer."

Several additional observations about these numbers deserve mention: (1) Despite EU's recommendation of a single course load, 8–10% of the students carry a two-course load; among persistent or veteran students, 61% were registered for two or more courses; (2) the large enrollment increase in

Table 8: EU Registration by Semester, 1976-84

Year	Semester	Total Registrations	New Students
1976/77	1	2,267	2,267
	2	3,320	2,190
1977/78	3	4,269	2,091
	4	5,459	2,521
1978/79	5	6,885	2,598
	6	6,514	2,374
1979/80	7	6,942	3,019
	8	7,918	3,151
1980/81	9	10,639	5,841
	10	12,728	6,736
1981/82	11	11,272	5,684
	12	11,828	5,498
1982/83	13	11,381	5,486
	14	12,508	5,077
1983/84	15	12,420	6,022
	16	12,871	4,384
Total over 8 years		139,221	64,939

Semester 10 is attributed to extensive media publicity attending EU's accreditation in 1980 to award the bachelor's degree.

Moreover, when compared with the enrollments of far older, more established universities, EU's growth seems quite remarkable and demonstrates the existence of unserved or underserved populations.

As might be expected from the nature of a DTU, EU's students differ in several important respects from students at conventional universities. First, EU students are older, particularly those who are most successful and persistent in their studies.

Table 9: Distribution of EU Students by Age

Age Group	Semester 14 Number	Semester 14 %	"Persistent Students" %
18-20	1,371	12	
21-26	3,229	28	3.3
27-35	3,466	30	25.2
36-49	2,794	24	45.9
50+	858	7	24.4

(Sources: Shatzman, Shohat; see bibliography)

At the same time, there is a marked increase in younger age groupings, largely due to enrollment of teacher seminar students and soldiers performing their compulsory military service. Students age 20 or less* increased from 1.2% in Semester 1 to 12% in Semester 14 while 21-26 year-old students grew from 19.9% to 28% in the same period. Conversely, EU students over age fifty declined from 11.9% in Semester 1 to 7% in Semester 14.

Women slightly outnumber men in the general student body, approximately 53% to 47%. Overall, the growth of women in the EU student body has been constant—from 36.9% in Semester 1 to today's majority. (Apparently, however, women are less persistent than men in upper-level studies; in 1982-83, new and first-year academic track students outnumbered men 6,823 to 5,725, while in second and third-year studies men exceeded women 484 to 450 and 208 to 146, respectively.)

Whereas students in typical universities consider study as their principal, full-time occupation, EU (and other DTU) students present a markedly different occupational picture.

Table 10: Distribution of EU Students by Occupation

	Semester 14 Number	%	"Persistent Students" %
Office work and management			
Public Sector	1,060	11	21.9
Private Sector	753	7	21.9
Armed forces	1,854	16	1.0
Education	1,426	16	28.7
Health, science and engineering, art and free professions	665	7	3.1
Technology, technical services, industry and building	1,037	10	20.4
General Services	343	4	5.4
Agriculture	329	3	5.2
Homemakers	417	5	4.2
Students	1,152	12	N.A.
Others (including 35 prison detainees and 51 students abroad)	719	9	N.A.
TOTAL	9,755	100	

(Source: Shatzman, Shohat)

Thus, approximately three-fourths of EU's students are employed in the

* Gifted high school students may enroll at EU upon the recommendation of their school principal. The British OU discourages enrollment of students under age 21.

labor force. (Indeed, 60.2% of the persistent students report spending more than 40 hours a week on their jobs.) At the same time, the percentage of EU enrollments attributable to students enrolled full-time elsewhere has increased by 50% in the past seven years while those in the armed forces have increased from 7.5% to 16%.

Another marked (and expected) characteristic of EU students is their lesser academic preparation. Currently, only 49% of the student body has passed the nationwide matriculation (*bagrut*) examinations. As Israeli higher education is presently constituted, therefore, *half of EU's student body is barred from study in the conventional universities.**

Providing study opportunities for Israel's young people while they perform compulsory military service has long been a distinctive objective of the EU program. Through active recruitment of soldiers on their bases in close cooperation with the military's corps of education officers, and a 30% remission of tuition, EU distinguishes itself to the point that up to 16% of the student body consists of soldiers on active duty. After earning one or more credits at EU during their military "free time" the usual pattern is for soldiers, upon discharge, to enter upon full-time study at one of the conventional universities. Thus, only one percent of EU's persistent students—those with six credits or more—were members of the standing armed forces.

Teachers and future teachers constitute another large bloc of EU students. In Semester 12, 1,552 EU students—about 16% of the total enrollment—listed occupations in education. Of these, 80% lacked academic degrees while 20% had acquired them.** Thus, EU provides an attractive option for teachers to complete their bachelor's degree, accumulating credits over a number of years while remaining at work in the classroom. Simultaneously, fully certified teachers are able to choose specific courses to enhance their skills or to increase general knowledge.

A second body of would-be teachers—1,412 in Semester 16—were registered in organized groups of students enrolled in about eight teachers' training colleges. With the encouragement and financial support of the Ministry of Education and Culture, several such colleges, rather than offer all courses themselves, contract with EU for specific education, humanities, Jewish history and social science offerings. Up to six such courses may be taken by students at EU in the context of groups organized by the teachers' colleges and tutored about 1.5 hours per week under EU supervision. Thus, these colleges

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* In Semester 15, 52% of the students in EU's academic program had passed the *bagrut* compared with 33%, 34%, 35% in the vocational, continuing education and pre-academic programs, respectively. Several Israeli universities offer limited opportunities for older persons lacking the *bagrut* to gain admission by special examination. This practice is not widespread.

** In Semester 15, 12.1% of teachers studying at EU had a bachelor's degre and 3.3% a master's or doctorste; 84.6% lacked any academic degree.

save funds and their students are introduced to self-study discipline and serious academic studies while seeking their initial teaching certificate. After receiving such certificates, students may also receive 3-4 additional credits from EU's special committee for the recognition of previous studies, thus putting them half-way toward the bachelor's degree.

As EU's inventory of courses especially designed for teachers has grown, so has interest in further outreach among teachers. The 1982-83 report of the Academic Committee, for example, recommended that the University conduct special programs and workshops during school vacations to enable more teachers to concentrate on specific subjects, to encourage diploma-bearing teachers to pursue academic degrees, and, in general, to attract more teachers to EU's offerings.

EU has also proven particularly popular among members of Israel's collective farms or kibbutzim; about a quarter of all kibbutzniks pursuing higher education are enrolled at EU and together constitute 8.5% of EU's total enrollment. The percentage of kibbutz members lacking the *bagrut* certificate is 50% versus 40% in the general EU student body. Obviously, kibbutzniks are prime examples of "second-chancers" for whom the University was originally created.

Other statistics: While about 45% of EU's students indicate a desire to earn an academic degree, this is true for only 16% of kibbutzniks. 53% of all kibbutzniks study "as a hobby" or for general knowledge versus the 25% who do so in the general student body. At the same time, about 20% of kibbutzniks study in the extra-academic programs, compared with 10% of EU's enrollment overall. An interesting indication of EU's solid standing is that a number of kibbutzim have voted that their members no longer need to request kibbutz advance approval to study at EU; whoever registers at the University is assured in advance that their kibbutz will provide the necessary funding.

Finally, EU serves each semester 15-20 prisoners and about 20 overseas students, mostly Israelis residing abroad.

Why Do They Study at EU?

Motivations for study at EU seem to mirror those of students at other DTUs, even if the composition of EU's student body varies in significant ways. Acquisition of an academic degree, improvement of specific or general knowledge, enhanced skills on-the-job (notably in primary and secondary education), preparation for a new career, and strengthening of self-esteem and image all play a role in motivating EU's student body.

Registration forms for Semester 14, for example, show that 44% of EU students sought a degree while 25% sought general knowledge. Other motivations include: to acquire a profession (5%), to understand present profession better (9%), to prepare for future academic studies (7%).

The most detailed study of EU student motivations presented further findings pertaining to persistent students, findings which are believed to reflect the general student body in range if not in exact degree. (see Table 11).

Table 11: Main Objectives for Studying at EU

Objective	Relative Frequency 1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
1. To earn an academic degree	43.8	19.7	11.0	6.1	7.0
2. To broaden my general education	47.2	27.8	8.9	6.1	2.7
3. For self-actualization	13.4	12.5	13.6	8.0	8.3
4. To improve my feeling about myself	11.0	8.7	13.3	14.2	10.0
5. To improve my self-image	4.7	6.6	9.8	6.4	8.7
6. To improve my professional ability	4.4	7.4	8.9	4.7	8.3
7. To prepare myself for a change in occupation	1.5	2.8	3.0	4.5	11.6
8. To improve my skills for job promotion	4.2	4.2	6.8	4.7	8.1
9. To improve my skills in order to change my place of employment	1.9	1.5	2.8	2.8	9.3
10. To develop a hobby or new interest	4.7	8.3	9.5	7.8	8.9
11. To broaden the subjects of common interest at home	1.7	1.9	4.2	4.4	8.7
12. To prepare for formal education elsewhere	3.0	5.3	6.1	5.7	11.9
13. Other	4.2	2.1	2.1	0.9	1.9

(Source: Shohat, Table 3, page 86)

Another question directed to successful EU students, to "satisfied customers", suggests still other answers as to why students study at EU (Table 12).

At the same time, Shohat identified the main sources of student discontent with the DTU and EU method of learning as seen in Table 13.

Overall, it seems clear that the majority of EU students—like those in DTUs elsewhere—do not seek an academic degree. Some 15-20% of the students continue taking courses year after year, without interruption, and in many cases after they have earned a degree. *Overall, about half of the students in a given semester take the courses' final examinations and over 80% of these are awarded credit.* Of those otherwise eligible to take the final exams, about

Table 12: Reasons Given by Persistent Students for Preferring Study at EU

Reason	Relative Frequency		
	1st	2nd	3rd
1. Enables me to study and also cope with home commitments and responsibilities	20.5	15.0	14.6
2. Gives me something to do in my free time	18.6	14.8	12.9
3. I like the distance learning methodology	33.7	19.5	9.7
4. Enables me to study while also holding a job	29.9	15,9	10.8
5. I don't have to leave my home to study	24.4	17.6	11.6
6. Enables me to organize and manage my time the way I want	30.7	17.6	19.9
7. The low cost of tuition	2.8	7.0	12.3

(Source: Shohat, Table 2, page 83)

Table 13: Main Difficulties Encountered in Studying at EU

Difficulty	Relative Frequency		
	1st	2nd	3rd
—pressures and responsibilities at work	37.1	20.8	10.2
—home demands and responsibilities	27.8	27.8	12.7
—social commitments, pressures and responsibilities	4.2	10.8	18.8
—lack of time	19.7	24.6	17.4
—lack of energy	2.3	8.1	15.9
—the need to keep up with course schedules	9.1	12.7	16.9
—the self-study method of distance learning, difficulty of	1.7	3.6	15.9
—long military reserve service	3.6	4.0	10.8
—course material too difficult	1.7	8.1	12.9
—course material not interesting	1.3	3.2	12.9
—tuition too expensive	2.8	6.4	12.7

(Source: Shohat, Table 1, page 78)

one-fifth choose not to do so while many of these nevertheless enroll for further courses at EU. Thus, it seems that at least 20% of all registrants have no intention of seeking credit points. New students, constituting almost half the enrollment each semester, replenish the ranks of graduates and those who have completed the course or courses they sought. Thus, while it is common in DTUs (as well as American undergraduate programs) to speak of high attrition or "drop-out" rates, the evidence strongly suggests that most students at EU are not seeking a bachelor's degree earned through the formal process of completing assignments, taking tests, receiving grades and compiling course credits.

The progression of EU students at various stages of their academic courses is well-displayed in Table 14 (similar tables for pre-academic, vocational and continuing offerings are available from the Evaluation Staff of EU):

Table 14: Academic Progression from Registration to Course Credit: Academic Program

Semester	No. of students registered	Students eligible for final examination	Entered final examination	Students awarded credit	% of students who entered final examination[1]	% of students awarded credit[2]
01	2202	1720	1425	1265	65	88.7
02	3303	2394	1937	1652	59	85.3
03	4225	2422	2618	2253	62	86.1
04	5250	3176	2580	2240	48	86.8
05	5874	3740	2871	2403	49	83.7
06	5755	3282	2520	2152	44	84.4
07	6271	3954	3000	2554	48	85.1
08	6799	2790	2827	2324	42	82.2
09	7459	4065	3301	2790	44	84.5
10	10351	5119	4212	3318	41	78.8
11	8525	4741	3895	3288	46	84.4
12	9958	5187	4241	3526	43	83.1
13	7837	4321	3843	3340	49	86.9
14	10617	5828	5011	4209	47	83.9
15	8628	5251	4254	3630	49	85.3

1. Computed out of all students registered in this semester
2. Computed out of those who entered final examination

(Source: Evaluation Staff of EU)

Definitions:

Student—A person who has registered for a course and paid tuition is called a student. If he cancels or delays his studies, he is not considered a student. Any student who registers for two courses in one semester is counted twice; such persons number 8–10% in each term.

Credit Point—A student who meets all the course requirements in an academic track course receives a credit point toward a degree. In the non-academic tracks, the student gets a certificate which attests to his having successfully completed the course.

Study for "double time"—Some of the courses offer the opportunity to study the course for two terms. These students have been included in the 14th and 15th semesters.

Thanks to the recent (1983) doctoral dissertation of EU's Director of Courseware Development and Production, Dr. Avshalom Shohat, we now know more about persistent or successful learners at EU than at most other DTUs. Dr. Shohat studied those students who had completed six or more

courses and had earned six or more of the 18 credits required for the bachelor's degree. From an initial survey population of 1,000 advanced students, 528 usable questionnaires were returned. Some of the findings have already been cited in the tables above. Additional data on EU student characteristics follow:

1. Student's Country of Birth

	EU Generally %	Persistent Students %
Israel	64	49.4
Europe, East	20	26.1
Europe, West		11.0
Asia, N. Africa	11	9.5
West. Hemisphere Australia, South Africa	5	4.0

Of the students born abroad, 93.7% had been in Israel 20 years or more and only one less than ten years. Thus, native language was not deemed to be a significant research variable.

2. Father's Country of Birth

	EU Generally %	Persistent Students %
Israel	12	7.0
Europe, East	55	62.5
Europe, West		14.7
Asia, Africa	27	15.4
Other	6	.4

These tables on students' and their father's country of birth offer the best indicators of how well EU serves Asian and North African populations which are generally deemed to include the most educationally and economically disadvantaged portions of Israeli society. Comparing these EU enrollments and origins with those in the seven conventional universities in 1978-79,* it appears that EU is doing a *significantly better* job than its older counterparts for populations deriving from Asian and African backgrounds.

* EU's more recent publicity brochures claim that 30% of its students are of Asian-African origin or the second generation of same; 60% of those born in Asia or Africa and 40% of the Israeli-born second generation had not matriculated and many had only 9-11 years of schooling.

Table 16: University Students in Israel, by Continent of Birth

	EU	Other 7 Universities
	%	%*
Student born in Israel	64	66.8
Student born in Europe-America	25	23.0
Student born in Asia-Africa	11	6.9
Father born in Asia-Africa	27	11.7**

* Excludes those whose continent birth is unknown.

** Israeli-born students whose father was born in Asia-Africa. In 1967-70 the comparable figure was 3.3%, thus showing substantial improvement in the universities as a whole.

(SOURCE: Council on Higher Education, Planning and Grants Committee, *Statistical Abstract, 1980/81*, Table 10)

3. Parents' Educational Attainment

	Fathers %	Mothers %
Less than elementary education	8.0	8.6
Completed elementary education	32.7	36.2
Some secondary or vocational education	8.5	9.3
Completed secondary education	26.7	27.3
Some higher education	6.1	5.0
University graduates	13.5	4.8

4. Marital Status

Married	85.6%
Single	11.3%
Divorced	1.9%
Widowed	1.2%

5. Number of Children

None	14.0%
1	8.7%
2-3	63.3%
4	10.0%
5 or more	4.1%

6. Years of Formal Education Completed

8th grade or less	1.7%
8-12 years	20.2%

12 years	34.1%
over 12 years	44.0%

52% of these persistent students graduated from regular high schools and passed the *bagrut* matriculation examinations. Other students, mostly graduates of vocational schools, also had completed twelve years of schooling but were not eligible for the *bagrut* examinations.

7. Highest Degree or Certification

Teaching certificate	20.5%	
Technician's certificate	9.5%	
Academic degree from a formal university	4.5%	(6% in more recent EU surveys)

8. Field of Study

Humanities and social sciences	66.2%	(versus 52.9% in general student body)
Sciences (natural and life) and mathematics	33.8%	(versus 47.1%)

9. Credit Granted for Previous Higher Education

No prior higher education	60.8%
Awarded credit for prior study	39.2% (Of these, only eight students received the maximum allowable of ten credits)

10. Place of Residence

Urban and suburban dwellers	77.6%
Kibbutz	11.2%
Agricultural, non-kibbutz	4.7%
Other	6.5%

11. Financial Assistance from Employer for EU Students

Received some aid	37.2%
No aid	62.8%

12. Number of Hours Devoted to Study Per Course, Per Week (EU recommends 12-15)

10 or less	48.6%
11-15	38.5%
16-20	8.8%
20+	4.1%

13. Student Satisfaction

96.2% of the students reported they were enjoying their distance learning, of whom 59.2% said they enjoyed their studies "very much". 3.6% enjoyed their studies "somewhat" and only one student (0.2%) gave a negative evaluation.

Chapter 6 The EU System of Studies

"EU is a pilot project. It will be developed in an evolutionary, experimental way, rather than by commitment, at the outset, to fixed curricula, methods, media and investments. It will be a flexible resource, usable as and when most required, making maximum use of modern instructional technology, with a minimum reliance on new campuses and buildings . . . EU will be student-oriented. It will not carry out research in any particular discipline but will dedicate itself to serving its student population. On the other hand, the whole operation of EU will be one continuous and major research into teaching at a distance . . . "

—Max Rowe

EU students may study a growing array of academic, pre-academic, vocational or general knowledge courses. Strikingly, however, over 90% of all students are enrolled in formal academic offerings for which credit is offered toward a bachelor's degree. Consequently, the bulk of this chapter will treat the academic program while the next will describe EU's extra-academic offerings.

A course is the basic unit of study at EU. In addition to two terms or semesters, each running 18 weeks in length, one beginning in September and another in February, there is a small summer session of nine weeks' duration. EU is also experimenting with a number of courses taught over two semesters in which assignments and examinations are staggered to allow a slower pace of study.

Students are not required to declare their intention to earn a bachelor's degree. To obtain a degree, however, a student must successfully complete 18 credits, generally representing 18 courses. (There are a small number of half credit courses.) Of these, no more than six may be earned in introductory-level courses and no fewer than four in advanced-level courses. At least 14 credits

must be earned in a concentration in either the humanities and social sciences or natural and life sciences and mathematics. Science "majors" are required to take at least one course in mathematics as well as *Introduction to Natural Sciences*. Students in the life sciences must complete *Pathways to Chemistry*. A working knowledge of English (or other foreign language in some cases) is also mandatory; this requirement is satisfied by the student's completing an English comprehension course or by passing a special exemption test.

At first, EU students were encouraged to pursue a "horizontal" program of studies, choosing broadly from an extensive menu of programs in the arts and sciences, including Jewish history and Hebrew literature. An EU degree usually involves study in interdisciplinary courses as well as subjects unrelated to one's area of concentration.

Recently, however, observed EU's Vice President for Academic Affairs, Professor Israel Shatzman:

> "More and more students wished to concentrate on a given discipline, after the fashion of regular universities. Furthermore, in many areas the 'horizontal' approach was proving inadequate, and a hierarchy-type course structure became necessary. Another problem arose when EU graduates, wishing to continue their education at other universities, met with difficulties because their studies at EU had not been structured along parallel lines. By producing more courses within a given discipline* . . . some of the needs could be satisfied: students wishing to concentrate on a particular subject would be able to do so, while others could still pursue a variegated curriculum. However, even allowing for these changes, the development of interdisciplinary courses must continue, since they are unique, distinctly valuable and sometimes innovative."

Despite these shifting emphases, EU is still dedicated to the proposition that a high quality, comprehensive first degree, rather than an array of single-discipline bachelor degrees, is the best way to serve Israel's working-age population. Not incidentally, this proposition may serve to reduce feelings of competitiveness and rivalry from Israel's established universities wherein students specialized in one or two relatively narrow disciplines. In any case, it possessed sufficient merit for the Council of Higher Education when, in 1980, it accredited EU to award the bachelor's degree.

EU students may obtain up to 10 credits for prior academic studies by petitioning a special faculty committee. In practice, such credits are granted sparingly; in a sample of 528 persistent students, about 39% received some credit for prior studies but only eight students who had almost completed a degree elsewhere received the maximum allowable of 10 credits.

No credit is awarded for "life experience" as is the case in a number of

* As examples, we note the approval in 1982–83 of such specialized courses in the natural and life sciences as: solar energy, waves and optics, faunistics of vertebrates in Israel, and geological phenomena in the region of Lake Kinneret.

"open learning" programs, particularly in the United States. The issue of such credit was raised prior to EU's accreditation in 1980 and rejected as constituting an unacceptable compromise with academic quality. Whether such a move would meet with more sympathy today is doubtful. In any case, no movement in that direction has been detected.

Another "inflexibility" in EU's academic program is the requirement that all students begin their studies in either September or February and proceed at a predetermined pace over the course of the semester. While it is possible to interrupt study in mid-semester and resume in the following semester, all assignments must then be completed in the new term. This is done for the sake of administrative efficiency as well as to encourage students to develop disciplined and persistent study habits through to completion of their studies.

A number of courses are offered in "double time," that is, over two semesters instead of one. This is done most often when the course is adjudged to be so difficult that a high dropout rate would likely occur if the entire subject matter had to be mastered in only a single semester. (Several courses are available both in single semester format and in double-time.)

Taking one, or perhaps two, courses per semester, an EU bachelor's degree would take five to seven years to acquire versus three to four years in Israel's conventional universities. Thus far, EU has had only two graduating "classes": 41 students in 1982 and 81 in 1983.

Graduates receive, together with the diploma, a transcript listing all courses successfully completed. The transcript specifies the years and university terms of studies, name and level of the courses taken, final grades earned, number of credits awarded and miscellaneous remarks (such as whether the course included a term paper, field trips, laboratory work, etc.). The transcript also indicates whether a student's prior studies elsewhere were accepted for credit in partial fulfillment of EU degree requirements.

A final grade is computed for every student, a weighted average of the grades earned in all the courses at EU which appear in the transcript. Introductory and intermediate level courses are weighted according to the number of credits per course, while advanced courses are weighted one and a half times the credits of each course. A student whose final grade is between 60 and 84 is considered to have fulfilled the requirements for graduation. A student whose final grade is between 85 and 94 is graduated *cum laude*. A final grade between 95 and and 100 earns graduation *summa cum laude*.

These requirements are believed fully comparable in scope, quality specialization and intellectual effort with graduation requirements at conventional universities as well as to those of the British Open University. In fact, comparing OU's degree, which requires completion of six year-long courses versus EU's 18 half-year courses, EU may be said to require 50% more study than its flagship counterpart.

An Integrated, Self-Study Package

Study at DTUs generally involves a blend of self-study at home, group tutorials and a variety of student support devices. Overall, the EU student is expected to devote at least 12–18 hours of home study per week to each course plus travel time to an average of four to six group meetings per course plus examinations. (Non-academic courses are geared to student effort of 7–10 hours weekly). The EU self-study package includes:

- Textbooks, specially designed and printed for EU courses
- Supplementary readings of various types
- Regular computer-marked and tutor-marked assignments and final examinations
- Television and radio broadcasts
- Teaching aids of many types including audio-cassettes, games and laboratory kits
- Centralized and regionalized library resources
- Organized tutorial sessions
- Regional study centers
- Organized study groups, often on employer premises or in teacher training colleges
- Tutoring by telephone
- Guidance and counseling services, particularly in self-study methods
- Field trips, workshops, laboratory sessions

Course and Textbook Development

At EU, the printed word is king. To quote Nachman Eshel, the University's enthusiastic Director of Studies, "The professor is in the textbook; there is no excuse for poor teaching."

Considering that prior to the advent of EU there existed few textbooks in the Hebrew language and that, today, EU's study texts are highly regarded throughout the country, detailed attention to this aspect of the EU program is in order.

Each course has as its centerpiece a printed "textbook," usually bound in several separate softcover volumes. Typically, there are 12 study units or modules of 60–80 pages each, which aggregate 700–900 pages of printed text. Each text is specially written for EU and is carefully and laboriously created either by the small EU faculty or by some of Israel's leading academicians, most often full-time professors at one or more of the leading traditional universities working under contract to EU. These textbooks are provided to students without charge, as part of their basic tuition fee.

Pedagogically, the textbook serves three purposes: (1) it presents the source materials; (2) it replaces the traditional frontal lecture with a variety of aids to help the student analyze and master the material; and (3) it encourages independent thinking and analytical capacity by posing questions and exercises throughout the text.

Course development hinges on EU's Academic Committee (AC), currently consisting of 23 members, including 11 EU administrators and senior faculty and leading academicians from four other universities. According to EU's "Statutes and General Regulations", this Committee "is entrusted with monitoring the academic standards of the University, including the composition of academic courses."

In practice, this means that the AC must consider not only which courses should be offered and in what sequence but, more especially, for what further academic and occupational purposes. For example, what kind of Introductory Economics course should be developed? Heavy in quantitative and statistical skills or "just a good, solid overview of the field"? Geared to the needs of generalists or specialists? Standing independently or as part of a planned progression toward a master's degree in a conventional university? At EU, as elsewhere, there is little evidence that such questions are based on systematic market research into what gainfully employed students believe they require or what actual and prospective employers recommend. Rather, key decisions are made on the basis of AC members' knowledge of their respective fields (or lack thereof) and the force of their personality and convictions. To the extent that the AC taps "the best in the entire country," EU has the possibility of avoiding some of the pitfalls of more "ingrown" faculties and disciplines in traditional universities.

A proposal to develop a course consists of a draft syllabus describing the substance the course is to cover, its aims, and brief synopses of the 12 study modules. Qualified experts are invited to comment on this draft and, in light of their comments, a refined syllabus is prepared. Possible course writers are given detailed guidance regarding the requirements of textbooks written for self-study, as well as technical pointers regarding development and printing. Writers are then invited to submit sample study units so that their academic standards and the suitability of their writing for self-study can be evaluated.

One of the AC's four subcommittees then reviews the proposed course, further advises on course content, the integration of the course with EU's overall program, and the organization of an expert course development team under the direction of a senior academic advisor or course team leader. After the AC approves a proposed course as consistent with EU's academic master plan, a final decision to proceed with development rests with EU's president. In 1982–83, the Academic Committee convened six times and approved the development of 33 new courses.

Course development generally requires 18–36 months, the greatest proportion of that time devoted to writing and re-writing the text and, if possible, to trial runs with student test groups and their feedback. Together with external academic advisors and EU staff, the senior academician in charge instructs the writers, shapes and reshapes the text and generally monitors the academic quality of the course, including both text and supplementary media (which are usually developed beginning with the first draft of a course's text).

To an extent unknown in the traditional university, course developers at DTUs give pre-eminent attention to the pedagogical efficacy of the course materials, and to the ability of given materials to instruct the student engaged in disciplined self-study. To ensure that the student's learning needs are paramount, course developers have constructed a methodology of development which includes, in the words of Dr. Israel Shatzman, EU Vice President for Academic Affairs:

> " . . . specifications of aims; graded and detailed information; a variety of statements, citations, discussions and examples; various questions and exercises with answers at the back; an appendix of key terms of reference for analysis of additional material; guidance on how to study and how to reply to the questions for self-evaluation. The guiding principle is that the student should be an active participant in the process of study and not a passive recipient . . . Care is taken with style and editing and much attention is devoted to producing clear and logically arranged narrative so that students make progress by themselves."

Exceptional attention is paid at EU to the development of special graphics and photographs, often in several colors, and to the quality of design and layout. These are of world-class quality and have helped to earn for the University the highest esteem in both student and professional circles. While final printing from camera-ready copy is usually done by private printers under contract, everything else is done by EU's own publishing house, an impressive establishment in its own right, equipped with some of the most up-to-date computerized phototypsetting equipment anywhere.

In the past four years, production of EU bound books has risen from 200,000 to 450,000 copies annually plus study aids, exam books, exercises, EU catalogs, an inhouse newspaper, etc. Last year over 90,000 books were sold independent of course requirements so that sales of books and teaching auxiliaries now exceed 20 percent of the publishing department's revenues. Further marketing of EU course materials is being actively promoted at bookstores nationwide as well as in EU's own bookstore and through the mail. While there is no systematic effort to identify which conventional universities or courses have adopted EU textbooks, the rising sales figures serve to confirm reports that EU texts in mathematics, biochemistry, and genetics are used at Hebrew University while Tel Aviv University has adopted some of EU's texts in statistics and psychology.

Overall, EU textbooks, unlike the lecture notes of individual professors in traditional universities, are published for the scrutiny of professional colleagues throughout the country—persons who, not incidentally, influence the potential academic career chances of EU faculty in the traditional universities. Moreover, EU's texts and course materials are constantly tested against actual student learning through independent examinations, all of which "lays a serious responsibility upon the entire course team and also acts as a particular inducement to perfect it in all its academic, pedagogic and aesthetic aspects." (From EU's "Application for Accreditation to Council for Higher Education")

Course Revision

As a matter of highest academic principle, EU has accepted its Academic Committee's counsel to revise each course at least once every five years in order to assure that course materials keep abreast of scientific developments, improved learning technologies, the changing academic profile of the University, and its ever-increasing inventory of courses. Even the five-year timetable is not sacrosanct, as the Academic Committee admonished in 1983:

> "When, for scientific or didactic reasons, the need arises to alter, revise or even re-write a given course, there is no room for compromise or concessions. The necessary modification or re-writing is to be performed without delay."

Assistance in the process of course revision is a major part of the work of EU's small (full-time equivalent of three persons) Evaluation Staff which continuously processes data on student progress and correlates this with information and feedback from all parts of the teaching staff—course coordinators, tutors, academic faculty and external consultants—as well as students.

Supplementary Readings

In addition to the typical 12-unit textbook, EU course coordinators, assistants and tutors compile literally tons of supplementary reading materials: original source materials, extracts of existing textbooks, reprints from scientific and scholarly journals, additional exercises, bibliographies, laboratory and study guides, etc. Some courses, e.g. literature or philosophy, recommend the purchase of entire books, often made available at reduced cost. Collectively, these materials (often in English) serve to explicate the core texts, stimulate discussion in the tutorial sessions to follow, present a variety of points of view, introduce students to scholarly literature in the field, and generally make the studies more lively and absorbing.

Continuous Assessment: Key to Student Involvement

Borrowing heavily from British OU experience, EU uses a continuous

assessment process throughout the semester, attempting to involve each student in participatory activities going beyond the passive reading of the course textbook. Specifically, each course includes seven to ten Computer-Marked Assignments (CMAs) and Tutor-Marked Assignments (TMAs).

CMAs consist of a questionnaire containing about 20 multiple-choice questions. Students place their answers on a computer-optical scanning card. The course coordinator gives the correct answers to the computer. Students receive a computer printout of their grades, correct answers for each question, sometimes specific comments relating to questions, details of any errors, references to source materials, etc. During the course, the student is asked to take four to six such texts.

TMAs contain three of four open-ended questions. The answers are examined by tutors who are, in turn, supervised by course team. Tutors correct the papers, comment on and clarify them and offer helpful written guides to further progress, and then return the papers to EU. The papers with grades are then sent to the student. During the course, the student is asked to complete three to five such assignments.

Early in EU's history, the Academic Committee considered the value and validity of CMAs in humanities courses. While their continued use in general was upheld, course coordinators may dispense with CMAs in certain cases.

Recently, in an effort to upgrade the continuous assessment process, EU has begun to send students, in addition to the corrected open-ended assignments, an answer-key and/or examples of particularly good answers received from other students. In addition, EU now guides tutors on how to read and correct the tests and counsels teaching coordinators on the preparation of examinations, particularly computer examinations.

Collectively, CMAs and TMAs are prepared anew each semester and serve several purposes: To stress and review the main points of the study material and provide a chance to exercise the knowledge and skills acquired; to offer feedback to the student and course coordinators as to what extent the study material is understood; to assess the formal achievement of the student; above all, to involve the student actively so that he/she will not drift away from the rigorous discipline of self-study.

To be eligible to sit for the final examination, students must complete at least 50% of the CMAs and TMAs which together account for approximately 40% of their course grade. The additional 60% of one's grade derives from the final examination conducted at one of up to 17 regional examination centers as close to the student's home as possible. These examinations are conducted as nearly as feasible at the same time in all examination centers by central staff monitors from EU in Tel Aviv, not by course faculty or tutors. Thus, the integrity and independence of the final examination from the day-to-day instructional process are safeguarded.

In judging the scope of these operations, it may be noted that EU's faculty and course coordinators prepared some 700 final examinations, 469 CMAs and 854 TMAs in 1982–83. During a single semester (the 14th), 5,991 students took their final examinations under the supervision of 626 monitors. Altogether, in academic year 1982–83, tutors marked 50,948 assignments (TMAs) while computers were responsible for 29,575 (CMAs)—a total operation of 80,523 assignments. (Of these, 67,763 were in academic courses, the balance divided among pre-academic (6,525), vocational (3,220) and general knowledge (3,015) courses).

For readers interested in a closer look at EU's continuous assessment process, the following detailed description, prepared by David Seligman of Britain's OU, should be of value:

> "The ratio between CMAs and TMAs tends to be approximately 6 CMA/4 TMA. It is recommended that 1 CMA is used per 2 text units and 1 TMA per 3 units. Some courses have compulsory assignments and students are not awarded a credit if these are not completed.
>
> Students have to return completed assignments by a certain specified date. Late submission of assignments is allowed if there is good reason for this, for example, illness or army reserve service.
>
> There can be delays of 5 or 6 weeks from the time of submission before students are notified of CMA grades.
>
> This poor turnaround time can seriously disadvantage students needing feedback on their performance as the courses only last 18 weeks. Tutors are asked to mark all TMAs within 2 weeks of the cut-off date and return the grading from giving the individual question scores, the overall grade for the assignment, and comments on the student's piece of work and progress. A computer printout is produced showing the marks awarded by each tutor, giving the average for each tutor and the overall average. This printout is sent to the person in charge of the particular course and to the Examinations section. Each tutor's marking is monitored and the academic responsible assesses both the marking and the advice given to the student. Tutors who prove unsatisfactory are not reappointed.
>
> Prior to the examination, students are informed of their current total number of assignments submitted and those who have not yet done the required number have to complete them so as to be eligible to take the examination. Following the marking of the examination, students are informed of their grade and of their overall course result (which also takes into account continuous assessment).
>
> In some courses compulsory assignments are set which must have been attempted before a student will be credited for the course. The Biology and Science courses also have compulsory laboratory sessions and compulsory meetings/tutorials. In the case of compulsory CMAs and TMAs, extra time is allowed for their completion but these cannot be left until the next semester.
>
> The student is notified of the result of the examination by percentage score as well as the overall percentage score for the course. The credit certificate is sent separately."

This intensive process, together with the multiple study aids which are described below, help to explain why EU officials take such pains to point out

that a bachelor's degree at EU is "so much more than merely reading 18 books!"

Television and Radio

Following the cautions of the Schramm Commission about the possible overuse of television and bearing in mind the admonitions of its first president, Max Rowe ("The burden of proof is on those who wish to depart from the printed word and wish to use other media."), EU uses television and radio sparingly.

Some 45 EU courses now have 6–12 TV programs each which may be shown (in color) over Israel's sole, non-commercial TV channel. (A second channel has been under discussion for years.) As in other countries, competition for air time is intense and that which is available is often inconveniently scheduled for the bulk of EU's working students, between 2:30 and 3:54 p.m. Currently, only about two and a half hours of instruction per week are transmitted by TV.* During Semester 15, 118 different TV broadcasts were scheduled over a five-month period. Video cassettes of most programs can be seen at many of the regional study centers for students unable to watch the broadcasts at their scheduled hour.

Recently, the Department of Courseware Development and Production, in cooperation with the Center for Educational Technology and the Instructional Television Center, produced original programs on the flora and geological strata of Israel, interviews with Israeli writers, economics, music, game theory and literature. In 1982–83, 35 instructional films were translated and adapted to Hebrew while another 20 films were purchased for future adaptation. Examples of programs based on purchased films include: Art in the Technological Era, Shakespearean Drama, The Era of Revolutions, Growth of New Nations in Africa, Physiology and Metabolism, and Educational Psychology.

Radio transmissions amount to some six hours per week to enrich various course offerings. During Semester 15, 70 academic and 137 non-academic broadcasts were scheduled. All academic offerings were in the 5:20–5:50 p.m. time slot while the general knowledge or continuing education programs were broadcast from 11:30–12:00 a.m., 3:25–3:55 p.m. or 5:20–5:50 p.m. EU's general knowledge broadcasts are highly regarded. According to a 1979 study, they have a large audience, particularly among homeworkers, the retired, kibbutz members and drivers generally. Foreign language transmissions rank first in popularity. Last year, 74 radio broadcasts were produced for the academic program with another 85 in the general knowledge or adult education track. An additional 55 broadcasts were in various stages of production.

* In contrast, in 1983, Britain's OU broadcast 32 hours of TV and 20 hours of radio each week. In 1976, it petitioned a government commission for 76 hours of TV and 58 hours of radio time.

Audio-Visual Services

Distance educators generally believe that there is "no science of media mix." That is, exactly what role the major electronic media and personal audio-visual denies should play will vary from course to course, depending on the views of its creators.

At EU, however, a wide variety of learning aids are employed. Science students are loaned kits so that experiments may be performed at home. In electronics, for example, the student has the home use of an oscilloscope, signal generator, power supply and other components. Geology students borrow collections of minerals and rocks. Life science students receive collections of seeds, lyophilized flowers and live drosophila flies.

An extensive lending service of audio-visual aids is maintained by EU's student services administration. For fees ranging from $4.50 to $35.00 per semester, students may rent numeric calculators, electronics, geology and electricity laboratory kits, tape recorders, mini-computers, slides and viewers, electric organs, etc. (After a special "cleanup campaign" in 1982–83, EU officials report few lendable aids still missing or overdue.)

Many courses, as part of their basic study package, include without additional charge, non-returnable audio cassettes for home study or for listening at regional study centers. This is particularly true for courses in English, Arabic, mathematics, electronics and music. Audio cassettes have also been specially produced in a number of courses for the benefit of blind students.

With the rapid growth in Israelis' ownership of home micro-computers and videocassette recorders*, EU is turning its attention to preparing software for home use. However, severe resource constraints limit the ability of EU's staff to advance in this expensive area. Certainly, the dream of the Schramm Commission—that EU "might set in motion a wave of practice, research, and theory-building in instructional technology that would have world-wide significance . . . to the time when Israel will take a position of leadership in the advance of instructional technology"—is a dream still unrealized.

Library and Laboratory Resources

EU shares a library with its neighbor, the Center for Educational Technology. Open to students and staff, the library also services the regional study centers nationwide. According to the 1982–83 President's Report, the library

* One source estimates 180,000 to 200,000 VCRs in Israel, ranking it number two (after Sweden) in per capita ownership. See Malka Bardwin, "The Video Invasion", *The Israel Economist*, October 1983 (vol. 39), pp.12–13. About one-sixth of Israel's 1,500 elementary schools and 60% of its high schools use computers for instructional purposes. The Minister of Education is in the process of mandating computer literacy courses for all students from the elementary grades on. See Kugelmass and Horenczyk (1983).

contained some 20,000 volumes, 570 videotapes, 3,300 slides, 220 16mm films and assorted other audio-visual items. In addition, the decentralized or regional study centers have a combined collection of 4,540 books, 2,334 videotapes, and 3,226 audiotapes.

Working with other universities and public libraries, EU's library staff has made it possible for most EU students and staff to have parity of access to their reading rooms, collections and, in certain cases, laboratories. Where necessary, EU defrays the cost of such arrangements with others rather than build or buy its own. EU course materials are also on loan to a variety of conventional university libraries and are purchased by their students in university bookshops, another example of EU outreach or "multiplier effect".

Tutors and Tutorial Sessions

While independent, home-based study is the heart of any DTU system, tutors also play a large role in the learning process—and at the same time constitute one of the clearest problem areas in such systems.

As noted in Chapter Four on EU's founding and early years, the question of how much interpersonal contact should be provided to supplement EU's self-study approach has never been finally resolved. Today, EU continues to grapple with the question with a variety of evolving tutorial, counseling and faculty-field relationships. In the words of Vice President Shatzman: "We think it is our duty to extend emotional support and encourgement to the student in his efforts to study . . . The University has to give the student a feeling that he is part of a family." In this, he was reflecting the experience of OU and other DTUs:

> " . . . at least 50% of a given student's needs are not strictly related to the subject in hand . . . the help he needs is of an educational kind, even of an academic kind, but not strictly subject based. It becomes possible therefore to conceive of a function for the counselor which is totally related to the whole tutorial process"*

At EU, every student is assigned to one of approximately 300 tutors, usually in his or her hometown or adjacent region. Tutors, most of whom have a master's degree or a doctorate and many of whom are studying for the doctorate at one of the traditional universities, serve as EU's major human contact with its student body. They are EU's "foot soldiers in the field." Working under the supervision of some 75 instructional coordinators (some of whom oversee more than a single course), the tutors are not expected to give formal lectures, but to lead group discussion, explicate portions of the textbooks or supplementary materials, conduct exercises, explain assignments and test results, give individual guidance, grade regular assignments, and maintain contact with students by mail and telephone.

* R.H. Beevers of OU, cited in Rumble (1982), p. 37.

Non-obligatory group meetings or tutorials, usually held in the evening at regional study centers, are scheduled about once every four weeks and last about two hours each. Some tutorials take the form of field trips or laboratory sessions. During 1982–83, EU conducted 758 tutorials in the 34 study centers, 3,751 guidance sessions in all parts of the country as well as 52 field trips* and 70 laboratory meetings. Obviously, tutorials also perform a useful educational and social function, allowing students to meet each other and learn from one another.

Shohat's research on persistent or successful students at EU yields interesting data on student perceptions of tutorial sessions. Shohat found that 44.8% of his respondents participated in all or most tutorial sessions; 32.6% attended occasionally while 22.7% seldom or never do so. As to the benefits of such tutorial sessions, only 24.9% rated the tutorials as making a "significant" contribution to their studies, 46.7% said they helped "somewhat" and 28.4% rated them as offering very little assistance.

In general, the perception is widespread that the tutorial aspects constitute a weak link in EU's instructional system. "Insufficiently trained", "under-motivated", "poor teachers" are some of the descriptions of tutors heard from students. "Under-paid" and "under-appreciated" are the most frequent views expressed by tutors.

In any case, EU is aware of this critical problem area, and is constantly seeking more talented tutors and conducting refresher courses and training sessions for tutors around the country.

Regional Study Centers

A network of 34–36 study centers blankets the country from North to South, giving EU a modest measure of physical outreach and a chance to maintain a measure of human contact with its diverse student body. Located in schools, municipal community centers, regional colleges and other public facilities, the centers are more "a name and a shingle" than a substantial facility. Open only once a week for a few hours in most communities (twice a week in Tel Aviv), the center is managed by a part-time expediter or serviceman who looks after hygiene, heat, light, supplies, audio-visual equipment and generally prepares the facility for the various tutorial groups that will meet there.

* I am grateful to Issachar Goldert of the EU President's Office who arranged for my participation in one such study tour of "The Lands of Benjamin and Ephraim" in connection with the course on Jewish History in the Period of the First Temple. Some 42 students, aged 20–70+ and from the Upper Galilee to the Northern Negev, were my companions on a well-planned 12-hour course, complete with individual study kits, ranging over history, archaeology, Biblical exegesis, theology and the ever-present Israeli debate over the future of Judea and Samaria ("The West Bank").

In 1982–83, EU study centers reported 758 group meetings and many thousands of individual tutor-student and student-student contacts. At David Yellin Teachers' College in the Beit Hakerem section of Jerusalem, for example, 17 different study groups were meeting on a recent Wednesday evening. An otherwise-locked EU library was in full operation, enabling students to consult reference works and to borrow various aids and source-books. Audio and video cassette players were available for those who missed or wished to review an EU radio or TV program. Tutors were meeting privately and with groups of students. A good deal of pre-tutorial socializing was also enabling EU students to get something of the "educational intangibles" they would have on a regular campus.

Shohat's study of persistent students found that 61.6% lived half an hour or less from their nearest study center while 38.4% lived more than half an hour away. In some communities, e.g. Bet Shean or Nahariya, as many as 50–150 students might be registered at EU. Yet, since these students elect a wide variety of courses, it is difficult to obtain the critical mass for a successful group tutorial. In such cases, tutoring at more distant study centers, in person and by telephone, may constitute a last resort.

There is no groundswell for massive changes in the study centers although, if funds were found, there would undoubtedly be further development of a computer network which would link the regional centers with the staff and library resources of EU's main campus.

Tutoring By Telephone

Although distances in Israel appear minute to a North American, they nevertheless create feelings of isolation among Israelis removed from the three main cities. Israel's postal system may be relatively reliable by world standards but it is also increasingly slow.

The telephone, still hard to obtain in many older areas due to a lack of infrastructure, does not enjoy the same popularity for conducting business as it does in several Western countries. (*Yellow Pages* telephone directories are a growing resource but few Israelis would think of shopping by telephone and it is extremely difficult to conduct business by telephone with an indifferent bureaucracy—public or private).

Nevertheless, telephones play an important role in life at EU. At registration, students are provided a printed Study Guide containing telephone numbers, names and calling hours for the academic core staff in their course and a list of tutors, their own as well as others who may be contacted at specific times and dates.

While EU staffers report that the vast majority of students' calls are "unnecessary" in the sense that answers to the caller's question are already located in the textbook, all understand that the telephone provides a tangible,

humanizing link to a dispersed, possibly isolated student body. And the fact is that, despite twenty telephone lines into EU, it is often difficult for students to get through to a tutor or course coordinator. The service is definitely in demand.

Guidance and Counseling

Lack of knowledge about and skills for self-study is one of the most serious problems facing new students at EU. Resolving to work on the problem, EU set up an experimental group in 1983 to discuss good study techniques, the differences between serious study and merely reading for enjoyment, the efficient use of time, and how to prepare for examinations, and how to choose courses. Students were followed from the moment of registration through group meetings, individual sessions and intensive telephonic followups until the completion of the first course or courses.

The experiment reported significant gains in overall student retention and a larger proportion of students completing assignments and preparing for the final examination. On the basis of these findings, five part-time counselors were at work in 1984—serving up to 400 students—in Beersheva, Haifa, Jerusalem as well as the Tel Aviv area. The program, coordinated by Ilana Nitzan, now aids 5% of new students and could grow to serve perhaps 70% if second-year results warrant such expansion.

One by-product of this counseling program is additional student feedback about the tutors, textbooks and study arrangements, valuable data which EU's leadership intends to use in perfecting its system of studies.

> " . . . I have a lot to be grateful to Everyman's University for: the materials that I received from it, the attention, the concern, the efficiency, the love. It is very difficult to maintain love by an exchange of letters . . . but it is my feeling that with each letter, with each shipment, with each apology for delay in sending material, with every announcement that on page 37 of this and this book there is an error and watch out that you do not get trapped by it, you feel that you are important to the institution, that you are not merely someone who has paid the tuition fees and was sent the materials, but that they love you . . .
>
> The first time I came to the University . . . I went into the rooms where my courses were administered and they simply ensnared me. 'Sit down. Tell us: how was the course? what did you feel about it? what did you learn from it? what do you think should be changed?' And then you feel that you are not only a student, but a partner."
>
> *—Oved Kedem, kibbutznik and one of EU's first students*

Student Administration

The administration of student affairs is a complex and exceptionally critical undertaking in any DTU. Yet, as much else at EU, these affairs are conducted by a lean and streamlined staff, in this case totalling only 31 persons. These are organized in five sections: 1) Information and Registration, including

followup while studying at EU; 2) Study Facilities, including regional study centers, libraries and examination centers; 3) Assignments and Examinations, including administrative, not academic, processing of all homework assignments, results of examinations and grades; 4) Distribution of Materials, especially the preparation and mailing of all course kits and other mail; 5) Storage, "Lamda" Bookstore Sales, and Security.

Information and Registration

Despite its diminutive size, the student registration and information section is easily one of EU's most dynamic and imaginative operations. Under Sara Yolles' direction, EU advertises itself in a number of mass-circulation newspapers, through information kits sent to kibbutzim, community centers, directors of education, training and manpower in various organizations and firms, local and regional government councils. At the direction of EU's Council, advertisements in Arabic are also sent to Arab schools, community centers and newspapers. Attractive posters, information packets and registration brochures are widely disseminated and EU senior personnel personally visit special events, e.g. the International Book Fair, and a number of military bases on student recruiting missions.

In 1982–83, regional information centers were opened from Tel Hai in the extreme North to Eilat in the farthest South, as well as in Haifa, Netanya, Jerusalem and Beersheva. Integrated with EU study centers wherever possible, these centers open once a week to acquaint potential students with the University's study program and methods.

It may be noted that EU, unlike its British counterpart, does not advertise for students in the "yellow" or "gutter" press. Under the personal direction of the president, EU's ads have been described as "very square, conscientious and proper" and are designed to stress the intellectual quality and rigor of EU offerings rather than imply that the University offers an easy alternative to traditional universities.

Upon inquiry, prospective students are sent the Course Handbook and an application for registration. For a nominal fee (77 cents per course, as of September 1983), they may also obtain an attractive package of sample study materials, which constitutes an introduction to the distance education method of learning.

EU's information brochures proudly proclaim: "There are no prerequisites; registration is open to everyone." At the same time, prospective students are warned that EU is best suited for those "who are highly motivated, intellectually well-endowed, and capable of assuming the considerable self-discipline and rigorous demands required to attain an academic degree." Prospective students are informed that experience has shown that most successful students

in the academic program had obtained the equivalent of an eleventh grade education. In any case, first-time enrollees are limited to a single course; in subsequent semesters, they may register for two or, rarely, for three courses.

Information required on the student registration form is simple and sparse:

(a) Citizen's Identification Number (which becomes the Student Serial Number and is used to enter all information concerning that student into the EU computer file.)
(b) Name, address, telephone number, sex.
(c) Year of birth, year came to Israel, country of birth, where father born.
(d) When did you last study, do you have matriculation (12th grade leaving certificate). If so, what kind of certificate.
(e) Are you a teacher, what kind, years of teaching service.
(f) Knowledge of Hebrew, English in reading, writing.
(g) Type of employment, by category.
(h) Kibbutz member or not.
(i) Reason for studying:
  (i) Acquiring a vocation or career
  (ii) General knowledge
  (iii) Desire to change vocation
  (iv) Advancement in present job
  (v) Preparation for matriculation
  (vi) Preparation for studies in EU academic program
  (vii) Earn an academic degree
(j) Study center location and course preferences.

It should be noted that EU's registration form requests no information on marital status, financial condition, religion or ethnicity (i.e. Jew, Arab, Moslem, Christian, Druze, etc.). Upon completion of the registration form and payment of tuition (about $71 per one unit course in Semester 15 with a 30% discount for soldiers), the student is entered in EU's computer file and mailed a kit containing all or at least the first installment of the semester's student units or modules, a course outline, assignments to be marked by his or her tutor or by computer, and a schedule of tutorials to be held at the assigned study center.

There are no limits on the number of students who may register in a given course except for very occasional resource constraints, e.g. lack of lendable study kits, lack of suitable laboratory space,* etc. If the number of students registering for a course is insufficient to justify hiring a tutor in a given study center—usually 15, or as little as 7–8 in an isolated, outlying part of the

* Laboratory courses were operated for the first time only in 1982–83 in the life sciences, chemistry and geology; EU's initial self-appraisal of such offerings was "most satisfactory."

country—these students are generally given the option of being assigned to a study center and a tutor somewhat more distant from their homes. Every effort is made to accomodate each student—somehow, someplace—in EU's national study grid.

By way of summarizing the care and self-awareness which is lavished on EU's system of self-study, the following excerpt from the "Master Plan for a Programme of Studies in Natural and Life Sciences" seems most appropriate:

> "The Everyman's University system of studies obliges each student to be a 'lone wolf' in coping with the various materials presented. This should make for persistence, independence of thought and the ability to study by oneself; however, students should not be exposed only to Everyman's University texts, since the 'real world' is made up of articles, textbooks, etc. There is a danger that our courses may be over-structured, and that the very choice of subjects and questions may oblige students to think along certain lines. How, then, are they to distinguish between primary and secondary notions, and how are they to process the wealth of information provided? In this connection, it is intended to develop Advanced-level courses featuring a number of "unwritten units" providing minimal direction by means of guiding questions. students will thus be required to read articles, reports and chapters from textbooks (mainly in English) with this aim in view."

Chapter 7 The Curriculum

(In Jewish tradition) "we say 'the gates of repentence are never closed,' implying that one can always make a fresh start and that if you have failed once you can give it another try and be successful. It follows that the gates of learning are never closed—here at EU they stay invitingly open at all times.

—Zevulon Hammer, Minister of Education and Culture

EU's comprehensive academic plan, adopted in 1979, called for development of 219 courses which would offer both a broad curriculum and a modest measure of concentration. By the opening of academic year 1983–84 (Semesters 15 and 16), EU had completed development of 115 academic courses, about half the course inventory target set in 1979. An additional 89 courses, all approved by the Academic Committee and EU's President, were in various stages of development (see Table 7).

Overall, progress in developing courses in the social sciences and humanities has been appreciably slower than in the natural and life sciences and mathematics, despite the fact that student enrollments show a reverse pattern. High priorities currently are the development of additional courses in the area of economics and management and a full-scale academic course in computer science.

By the completion of academic year 1983–84, a total of 169 courses—about two-thirds on the academic level—are projected. Of the non-academic courses, 14.5% are classified as pre-academic, 18.5% vocational, 17.3% general knowledge and 11.5% miscellaneous, especially foreign languages. The planned course offerings for the full year are included in Table 18.

EU courses are classified by three levels. Level I are introductory courses particularly designed to familiarize the student with the distance education mode of learning. Such courses are deemed comparable to the first semester of

Table 17: EU Academic Course Inventory, 1983

Field	Courses in 1979 Master Plan	Courses Completed 1983	Courses Under Development, 1983
Judaism	38	23	20
Humanities	40	14	23
Social Services	57	15	26
Mathematics and Computer Sciences	31	16	7
Natural Sciences	25	24	8
TOTAL	219	115	89

Notes: 1. Most courses carry a full credit point; others only 1/2 or 2/3 of a point.

2. Some of the courses completed or under way are not identical to those contained in the 1979 master plan.

(Source: Israel Shatzman in EU *President's Report, 1983–84*, p. 15.)

Table 18: EU Course Offerings, 1983–84*

	Total Number of Courses Offered	Academic	Pre-Academic	Vocational	General Knowledge
Semester 15, Beginning September, 1983	136	99	13	10	14
Semester 16, Beginning February, 1984	139	100	14	10	15
Total Courses for Year	275	199	27	20	29
Percentage of Courses Offered	100%	72%	10%	7%	11%

* Not all courses are offered in each semester

a conventional university. The bulk of EU courses are Level II, comparable to the first and second years of regular universities. Level III or advanced courses usually require students to write seminar papers or theses. Such courses equate to third-year studies in Israeli universities (generally equivalent to fourth year studies abroad).

Anatomy Of Student Choices In One Semester

A closer look at student enrollments in a single semester (14, beginning September 1983) reveals something of student composition and choices at EU. As of October 26, 1983, 12,420 students were registered, of whom 10,809 were in academic courses and 1,611 in pre-academic, vocational and general knowledge offerings. Among the academic registrants, 6,398 (59.2%) had been enrolled earlier in EU while 4,411 (40.8%) were new students. 1,101 students were studying in the framework of teacher training seminars* and 1,679 were under the auspices of other institutions and organized group study plans. 926 students (8.6%) were serving full-time in the armed forces. 1,623 students, including 974 in teachers' colleges, were registered in the double-semester or extended study format.

A total of 101 academic courses were being offered with enrollments ranging from one student to 811 (*Introduction to Computers*). Courses with enrollments exceeding 300 were: *Social Psychology* (615), *Jewish History: from Jerusalem to Yavneh* (533), *Educational Psychology* (449),* *Introduction to Macro-Economics* (397), *Jewish History: from Zion to Zionism* (387), *Jewish History: from Babylonia to the Hasmoneans* (350), *Jewish History: Period of the First Temple* (346). Average enrollments for the 101 courses offered was 107 students. The flexibility of EU's enrollment policy is well illustrated by the fact that fully 22 courses had enrollments of under fifteen students.

In non-academic areas, a total of 32 courses were offered with enrollments ranging from five to 141 and an average of 50 students per course. In these courses, the number of student soldiers was larger—122 or 13.2%—while the number of new students enrolled was 1,124 versus 486 prior EU enrollees. Among the most popular courses offered were: four different English courses with 200 students, five high school mathematics courses with 117 enrollees, four Arabic courses with 179 students, and a variety of others on electronics, computers, Hebrew, *Smart Consumerism*, *The First Years of Life*, and *The Kindergarten Age*. These extra-academic offerings are described in greater detail in the next chapter.

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* As might be expected, courses in the teaching of reading and in educational psychology are particularly popular with teachers studying at EU. Other courses being developed are especially geared to the needs of teachers: *Change in Education; Individualized Instruction; Economics of Education*.

Chapter 8 Extra-Academic Programs

"Education that transcends the constraints of time and place."
—*EU information bulletin*

As noted at several points in this narrative, Israeli higher education as a whole is rigidly uncompromising on issues involving what is considered "higher" as contrasted with postsecondary education, what is a "university" compared with a college or a technical-vocational program, what is "academic" and what is not. Much of what passes comfortably in the United States under the broad rubric of "postsecondary education" is, in Israel, accorded considerably less status, prestige and resources.

At EU, almost everything flows from the early decision to strive first and foremost to create an intellectually unassailable, first-class academic university (and each of the foregoing words must be repeatedly underlined) capable of winning early academic and degree-granting recognition as an university from the Council for Higher Education.

Accordingly, the bulk of EU's investments to date have been in the academic, degree-credit arena: approximately two-thirds of its current inventory of completed courses and about 90% of its current student enrollment are on the academic level. Organizationally, there is no body of EU personnel or leadership to look specifically after extra-academic offerings (for example, there is no School of Continuing Education). The priorities of EU's Council and Academic Committee lie unequivocally in the direction of meeting academic needs, as described in the discussion of EU's curriculum. While this author has encountered some sporadic criticisms to the effect that "Israel doesn't need an eighth university", that EU's "priorities for teacher training

and/or vocational-technical work are too low", and that "there is insufficient investment in the creation of special programs to aid the disadvantaged sections of Israel's population", there does not seem to be any substantial objection to the academic developmental path chosen by EU's leadership.

From its inception, EU provided some offerings of a pre-academic, general or continuing education, vocational, or teacher training character. However, unlike EU's academic offerings, the development of extra-academic courses depends, as a matter of policy, primarily on the ability of EU staffers to locate and obtain external funding and to undertake time-consuming and often ambitious collaborative ventures with outside agencies. This chapter devotes considerable detail to these and newer dimensions of EU's extra-academic service, largely in the belief that these may prove of considerable interest to Third World and other readers of this study.

Pre-Academic Programs

Students formally enrolled in EU's pre-academic offerings have ranged in number from 289 to 580 per semester on a generally declining curve over the past six years. Of these, some 21–39% chose to take the final examination and of these, in turn, 80–90% were awarded certificates of credit.

Initially, EU offered two four-course series in high school mathematics and English to those seeking secondary school proficiency or preparing to enroll in EU's academic program. These courses soon received the acclaim and financial support of the Ministry of Education and Culture so that EU math and English literature courses are now approved for use in the regular high schools; approximately 9,000 such students used EU study materials during 1982–83. Of these, about 4,000 pupils benefitted from EU audio and video cassettes used in frontal teaching classrooms; 2,500 pupils studied in classes integrating frontal instruction with EU study methods and published study units; another 2,500 pupils were tutored in some 145 special evening study groups led by EU tutors on a weekly basis.

It may be noted that these EU courses are also offered from time to time in some of Israel's regional community colleges and adult education centers, as well as on several bases of the Israel Defense Forces (IDF). The courses in high school English, which are accompanied by 24 television broadcasts, also reach a far larger audience than EU's small tuition-paying enrollment.

Besides the key courses in English, Hebrew reading comprehension, writing and mathematics, EU is currently developing other pre-academic courses at a pace sustained by available funding. These courses include: physics (written in cooperation with the Science Instruction Department of the Weizmann Institute), electricity and magnetics, higher level mathematics, Hebrew expression, basic Hebrew syntax, wisdom literature in the Bible, history of Zionism, environmental studies (supported by the Ministry of

Education), and a matriculation-level course in music (funded by the Jerusalem Music Center, another Rothschild Foundation innovation).

Excerpts from EU's history of Zionism course, *Following the Pillar of Fire*, were published weekly in 1 1/2 page articles in the mass-circulation evening newspaper *Yediot Achronot*. Two history texts on the Zionist movement in the past hundred years are also in development.

As EU reaches out to serve a larger number of neighborhood leaders, such as in its Project Renewal and other special group efforts, attention to pre-academic or *mechina* programs will undoubtedly grow.

General Knowledge or Continuing Education Programs

In furtherance of one of its major missions—to raise the general level of knowledge of the Israeli population—EU offers a growing array of courses. Here, too, enrollments are small—about 300 students per semester—and activity is restricted largely to the availability of external funding.

Among the most popular of EU's general knowledge courses are Spoken Arabic—Israeli, Egyptian and The Arabic of the Media. At least 6,000 public school students used these EU study and cassettes units in their classrooms. Beginning in September 1982, the Chief Education Officer and the Education Branch of the IDF reprinted EU Arabic study materials each week for four months in the official IDF journal, *Bamahaneh*. Other lessons were distributed in quantities of 10–15,000 per lesson to soldiers in Lebanon and were accompanied by weekly radio broadcasts over the *Voice of Israel*.

Other EU offerings include *Introduction to Computers*, *Ecology: Man and His Environment* (with financial aid from the Ministry of Interior), *Economy and Society*, *Health Choices*, *Hebrew for Arabic-Speaking Listeners* (financed by the Arabic Language Service of the *Voice of Israel*), *Planning for Retirement* (assisted by the Brookdale Institute). Several ten-week courses dealing with the *First Years of Life*, *The Kindergarten Age*, *Living with Children Aged 6–10* and *Consumer Choices* (or Smart Consumer) are also proving popular both among registered students at EU and readers of series run in various newspapers and magazines (e.g. Spoken Arabic for Beginners in Ma'ariv and The First Years of Life in Ha'Isha, a popular women's magazine.)

A salient example of comprehensive outreach is EU's course *The First Year of Life*. Originally a course of the British Open University, EU involved the Ministry of Health, pre-natal and well-baby clinics (*Tipat Halav*), the Women's International Zionist Organization (which operates a network of day care centers), the largest pre-paid health fund (*Kupat Holim*), colleges, community recreation centers, kibbutzim and a variety of medical, developmental and educational specialists in the adaptation of the materials to the Israeli landscape. TV and radio and a series of installments in the popular evening newspapers were also mobilized for the new course's dissemination.

The large role of Britain's Open University and the BBC in many of these course developments is readily acknowledged; either direct translations or extensive adaptations to Israel conditions have resulted in some of EU's more popular courses.

Recent general knowledge projects include courses in advanced Arabic, a training brochure (32,000 copies) for teachers of civics which was a course financed by the Central Bureau of Statistics on the subject of the nation's population census, a self-study guide for visitors to the nearby Museum of the Diaspora, four chapters of *The Kindergarten Age* course published in the official teachers' bulletin of the Ministry of Education, and a course (sponsored by the Adult Education Department of the Ministry of Education) especially written for graduates of Israeli *ulpanim* (Hebrew language intensive study centers) to assist in the reading of Hebrew newspapers, develop reading proficiency and deepen the quality of students' command of the language.

Finally, emphasis should be given to the fact that EU's general knowledge offerings are particularly geared to supplementation by radio and television broadcasting and, whenever possible, by dissemination through mass circulation newspapers and magazines. Thus far, for example, over 400 half-hour radio program have been aired in the *Education for All* radio series. The range of these broadcasts suggests that EU's outreach is far from being fully exploited. In 1981–82, for example, EU offered the following radio offerings: *The Yellow Star* (themes of the Holocaust)—30 programs; *Jewish Communities Around the World*—18; *Shalom Aleichem* (Hebrew for Arabic-Speakers)—17; *The Development of a Child's Language*—10; *English for Beginners*—10; and *Esperanto*—2. Limited only by funds (as well as by the availability of broadcast time), EU's continuing education potential seems both vast and still largely untapped.

Teacher Training Programs

The fourth of EU's stated educational aims is "to assist in raising the educational level of teachers." As previously noted, a substantial portion of EU's academic student body consists of teachers and a major portion of its academic courses are directed to the teaching profession (for example, *Curriculum Planning and Development, Educational Psychology, The Teaching of Reading*).

In the extra-academic area, too, EU offers a number of programs, particularly refresher courses and inservice training seminars. Special courses like *The Teaching of History and English Language Development* were among the very first developed. More recently, in 1982–83, EU offered programs such as these:

1) An English teachers' 300-hour study program, including linguistics,

American and English literature. Run in cooperation with the Ministry of Education, the course was offered preparatory to award of the teacher's certificate in all grades through grade 12;

2) A two-day seminar for 43 kindergarten section coordinators offered in cooperation with the Ministry of Interior (which has jurisdiction over the municipalities' nursery and day care centers);
3) A three-day seminar for 44 kindergarten teachers who are charged with the organization of parent groups to study EU's course on *The Kindergarten Age*;
4) A seminar for 27 national family health clinic supervisors and coordinators, organized with the Ministry of Health, for the EU courses *The First Years of Life and The Kindergarten Age*. This was to be followed by seminars for the nation's nurses who work in family health clinics;
5) Seven seminars for 160 English teachers to acquaint them with EU study materials and their classroom uses;
6) Two seminars for 230 teachers of Arabic on EU's study materials in this field;
7) A seminar for 80 home economics teachers, organized in cooperation with the Consumer Council and the Ministry of Education, on consumer education in the schools;
8) A seminar for 32 overseas professors, in cooperation with the President of Israel's International Center for the Teaching of Hebrew Civilization, on the possible use of EU's Hebrew language and literature course materials in universities abroad;
9) Two week-long seminars for 60 teachers based on EU's course, *The Principles and Practices of Teaching Reading*;
10) A summer recess seminar for 30 teachers in conjunction with Tel Aviv University's Training and Improvement Center in the School of Education on the subject of Hebrew syntax.

It should be remembered that EU awards no academic credits for such seminars and workshops. However, the Ministry of Education and other employers do grant wage increments for successful completion of continuing education efforts. Beginning in 1984, more formal 20-hour extension courses will be offered by EU in cooperation with the Ministry's Department of Inservice Training for Teachers. Further developments along these lines appear highly likely.

Vocational Courses

In-service training and vocational enrichment are of critical importance to Israel's economy. EU, in cooperation with its sister institution, the Center for

Educational Technology (CET) and the Ministry of Labor and Welfare, has offered a number of courses since its first semester in 1976. Enrollments have never been large; they ranged from a low of 208 to 632 students over the first 15 semesters. Students awarded course credit ranged in numbers from 106 to 336 per semester, between 76 and 93% of all those who sat for the final examination.

Currently, EU operates 16 vo-tech courses, many of which, like *Technical Drawing and Accounting I*, are offered over an extended 24 or 28-week study period. Other vocational courses include: *Electronics I and II, Digital Electronics, Qualified Electrician, Office Correspondence* (the latter developed jointly with and financed by the Civil Service Training Department).

Students completing the series on electronics or electricity may take special examinations administered by the Ministry of Labor and Welfare and thus earn a diploma with their vocational designation.

EU vocational courses include exemplary (and expensive) study kits which enable students to conduct home experiments in electronics and electricity. Similar kits and study units are used by CET during its administration of courses in vocational schools and in the Israel Defense Forces (IDF). A number of leading industrial enterprises—Tadiran, Elta, Israel Electric Corporation—also offer EU-CET courses as part of their in-house, inservice training programs.

Thus, although numerically small, EU's vocational programs are making a contribution to the Israeli economy as well as to hundreds of students who choose to study while working full-time. The experience gained by the University in this area has also contributed to the decision to open a School of Technology, a concept described briefly in the next chapter.

Tehila

With financing from the Department of Adult Education of the Ministry of Education and Culture, EU is now into the third year of Tehila—a Hebrew acronym for "Special Education Program for the Adult Student". Tehila is designed to help adults bring their education up to eighth grade level. Developed under the guidance of a special advisory group chaired by one of Israel's most distinguished academicians, Professor Ephraim Urbach, Tehila began offering instruction in the fall of 1980.

Tehila students are required to take proficiency courses in mathematics and Hebrew language. They also choose six electives from such areas as Jewish history, Bible, geography, sociology, economics, literature, child psychology, art, technology, introduction to science and "What is Democracy?"

In 1982–83, Tehila offered approximately one hundred courses to over 1,500 students in study centers around the country as well as refresher training courses for teachers in the project.

Courses for Study Abroad

Like other Israeli universities, EU feels under a special obligation to strengthen Jewish knowledge and identity in overseas Jewish communities and to nurture links among Israeli and Diaspora Jewry.

In 1974, the Department of Education of the Jewish Agency announced ambitious plans for an "Open University" to serve the Jewish studies interests of the Jews of the Diaspora. Headed by a distinguished professor of the Hebrew University (Professor S. Talmon), the plan was vigorously attacked by EU's Max Rowe and several other university heads, notably Hebrew University President Avraham Harman. When informed by the Minister of Education that only the Council for Higher Education could sanction such a project and that the proposed EU was a better vehicle for such an enterprise than a totally new institution, the project was aborted. In time, various units of the Jewish Agency would contract with EU for specific Diaspora-oriented courses, but the overall grand plan was never revived.

Believing that the distance education pedagogical method holds special promise for reaching and teaching Jews dispersed around the world, EU has been seeking resources to develop materials and programs in Jewish studies, particularly for teachers in Jewish schools, the upcoming generation of community leaders, and a variety of adults who wish to know more about their intellectual and spiritual heritage. An early policy decision requires EU to find such developmental resources externally so as not to damage the primacy of its missions among Israeli adults.

With financing in part from the Young Leadership Section of the World Zionist Organization, EU is working on a variety of materials which are believed to be responsive to the educational needs of Diaspora Jewry. As of 1982–83, EU had translated into English (and less so in Spanish) a number of academic courses and individual modules: *Jewish History: From Jerusalem to Yavneh*, *The World of the Sages* and *Jews in an Era of Change* and students overseas were working with them on an experimental basis.

Non-academic courses completed include a comprehensive family-oriented study kit in English on the holiday of Chanukah, complete with seven study units, a game and audio-cassettes, and a unit on the Sabbath. Another study unit, on the Bar Mitzvah with special textbook and video-casette, is well-advanced in Spanish and another on *100 Years of Settlement in the Land of Israel* has also been contracted for in order to help Diaspora communities better understand the development of Israeli society and its various forms of settlement and social problems.

Tuition fees for these "overseas courses" range from $100—140. Textbooks, cassettes, kits and games may also be purchased separately from $2—31.50.*

* See EU, "An Innovative Judaic Studies Program," 8 pages (mimeo).

In sum, EU offers a multi-faceted program of extra-academic offerings which, because of lack of regular funding, entail a series of peripatetic "targets of opportunity" rather than a comprehensive, strategically-planned campaign for the development of non-academic education.

Nevertheless, EU's extra-academic offerings clearly make a contribution to several of the University's main objectives:

- to assist Israel's population and the Jews of the Diaspora to broaden and enrich both their general and their Jewish education;
- to provide inservice education and skill enhancement for a variety of workers, especially teachers and technical workers;
- to offer laymen and professionals specialized knowledge in various areas of life.

Bolstered by a liberal use of the media and aggressive collaboration with a variety of governmental, professional and external groups, EU's self-study methods of instruction have been found suitable for reaching a wide body of students, both formally enrolled and, far larger, those in the general public and in the nation's secondary schools.

Now that EU's academic foundations seem firmly established and its legitimacy as a university fairly grounded, it remains to wonder what EU's distance education experience and expertise could accomplish in the extra-academic realms of adult education if proper resources and continuity of funding could be assured.

Chapter 9 New Directions

"Three thousand years ago, King Solomon enunciated the proposition that those who have some knowledge, seek more, and those who have little knowledge, seek none. Let's try to prove King Solomon wrong for once."

—Max Rowe

This report has noted numerous ventures upon which EU has embarked and which it hopes to complete—if budgets permit. Yet, the prevailing mood in the institution is that its original task is, at best, half completed; many new courses must be developed and others revised if the University is to keep faith with its presently enrolled students, particularly those who seek upper-level courses as a prerequisite to an academic degree. New ventures are fine if they do not deflect the institution from its main course.

In this chapter, we discuss two relatively recent developments which have important future implications for EU's character.

The School of Technology

Just as EU grew out of the Rothschild Foundation's conviction that the existing higher education system was unresponsive to major segments of Israel's population, and just as EU leap-frogged several years' development by building on the base of Rothschild's earlier investments in the Instructional Television Center and the Center for Educational Technology, so a new School of Technology is emerging to deal with other educational deficits and to capitalize on the experience and expertise of EU.

Recognizing that Israel's security and economic well-being are largely dependent on her ability to produce an adequate supply of well-trained technical manpower, the Rothschild Foundation established a Study Group in January 1982 to explore "the feasibility, practicability and economics" of an

"Everyman's Tech". Such a project would utilize the experience of EU and CET to prepare special courses based on distance learning and multi-media self-instructional techniques for the training of technicians and practical engineers.

In June 1982 the Study Group of leading technical educators, scientists, and industrialists reported to Rothschild* that a critical shortage of technicians and practical engineers did, in fact, exist. Israel today has less than one technician per university-graduated engineer, far below world standards. Moreover, an Everyman's Tech was found to be economically feasible and educationally viable. Other recommendations included the following: Everyman's Tech should be established "within the framework of EU" as a nationwide secondary and post-secondary level institution; about 60 technical courses should be developed during the first seven years, primarily by CET; home study should be imaginatively promoted via the latest communications technologies of "personal laboratories, micro-computers, video cassette recorders, and television; the school should retrain manpower toward technology; develop free-time study opportunities for the general public and textbooks and study kits not only for its own student body but "for the technological training network at large".

On the basis of these recommendations, EU's Council and Executive Committee agreed to sponsor the proposed School of Technology and the Rothschild Foundation committed $7.5 million for the first eight years of the project on the understanding, similar to that developed at the founding of EU, that Government ministries (Labor and Education) would assume gradually increasing financial responsibility from the sixth year onward and total financing in year nine. $700,000 of the Foundation's commitment is to be spent on construction of a new floor of one of the CET-EU buildings. Meanwhile, plans are progressing for the first courses in electronics, electro-optics, computers, industrial production, robotics and communications and potential writers of the study materials in these fields are being identified.

While it is too early to conclude what the ultimate effects of the School of Technology's establishment will be on the University itself—other than probable additions to the workload of an already highly committed and "well-stretched" staff—it does seem clear that the new technical emphasis will contribute to a further "rounding" of EU's overall image as a multi-disciplinary *university* and not solely an undergraduate, predominantly humanities and social services, institution.

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* *An "Everyman's Tech" for Israel:* Report Submitted to Hanadiv by Study Group; Yeshayahu Lavi, Chairman. Prepared with Rothschild support services, the report is almost identical in format and appearance to that of the "Schramm Commission" on EU issued ten years earlier.

Special Groups for "the Disadvantaged"

"To this end alone, the establishment of Everyman's University was worthwhile", declares President Avraham Ginzburg of the University's recent work with over 600 local leaders (*p'ilei shchunot*) of Project Renewal. Regardless of how this work may ultimately be adjudged, it does appear that EU is embarked on some significant new ventures with possible major implications for the University and Israeli society at large.

As noted earlier, EU has mounted special group programs for students enrolled in teacher training colleges, for employees of the major banks, for the army, and for various adult education and community centers. In 1982–83, for example, EU conducted 80 study groups in teacher training colleges, 14 in banks, 8 in Arab villages, and 40 others scattered throughout the country. Whenever 15 or more students—even fewer in outlying areas—register for a course, EU will provide a tutor and appropriate support services.

In the program offered to employees of the "Big Three" banks, for example, EU offers eight courses in economics and management while the banks teach more strictly vocational courses. Graduates of this program receive a professional diploma awarded by the Association of Banks as well as eight EU credits toward the bachelor's degree.

Project Renewal, a partnership between the Government of Israel and world Jewry represented by the Jewish Agency, aims to rejuvenate the most disadvantaged neighborhoods of the country and to develop indigenous leadership for service and decision-making in their own communities. (As such it is roughly analogous to the United States' Community Action and Model Cities Programs, funded originally by the federal Office of Economic Opportunity and the Department of Housing and Urban Development, respectively.)

In 1982, EU's growing reputation led representatives of the Project to approach the University with a request for a special group study program. Now in its second year, the program involves 16 special groups meeting mostly in community colleges and serving mostly adults with an average age of 35 from Asian and North African backgrounds and with high school level education or less. During the first semester the special groups study academic preparatory courses (*mechina*) and receive intensive guidance, for example, in how to study, reading comprehension, and communication skills. This is followed by regular courses in the second semester, usually in Jewish studies.

The major innovation in the group study program is the substantial addition of specially trained tutors to provide psychological support and added instructional services. Students meet with their tutors for a full day each week or, in some instances, for 10–12 evening meetings per course instead of the usual 4–6. Students are released from their jobs for such study days but usually at

the expense of their accrued annual leave. As a group, students counsel and "peer teach" each other, thus helping to overcome the sense of isolation that frequently defeats solitary learners. In the words of two recent participants in EU's Project Renewal program:

> "There is a very special atmosphere in our study groups. We have become attached to one another and that gives us a much greater push. To be able to cope with this material, one needs tremendous will power, and if you don't have it, you break in the middle. This way, each lends a shoulder to the other to lean on."
> "This is the only chance for those of us who never completed secondary school to learn academically. We need the extra support, the study day, for example, every week."

Thus, ten years after both the Schramm Commission and Braithwaite reports recommended intensive group activity for the disadvantaged to supplement independent home study, Project Renewal funds and initiative (and a smaller related program sponsored by the Histadrut Labor Federation for some of its promising members from disadvantaged communities) are pointing toward a possible new growth areas for EU's future: group offerings with supplementary tutorial and academic preparatory support services.

Related to this developing work with Project Renewal is additional academic outreach in several development areas of the country. Actively encouraged by the Council for Higher Education, a teacher training institution in Be'er Tuviyah will offer EU courses leading toward the bachelor's degree beginning in September 1984. A special pre-academic preparatory program (*mechina*) led by EU tutors will be an integral part of the program. Similar ventures in the Northern Negev, in the Yerucham-Dimona area, are also under consideration.

Why, one might ask, did it take so long for special programs of this sort to develop? And EU's leadership would answer: Not until the University had been established beyond any doubt as a high quality, degree-granting, academic institution did we have something substantial to offer to Israel's disadvantaged population. And now that we have it we are eager to expand.* To quote President Ginzburg precisely, as recently as March 26, 1984: "it is clear that toward achieving any of the goals envisaged by the creators of the University, it was and still is absolutely essential to maintain the very high standards of academic excellence."

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* See EU's two recent funding proposals, "University Study Program for Project Renewal Leadership" and "Enhancement of Asian and African Jewish Communities and Culture in Israel", each of which seek funding for scholarships to permit more community leaders to study in the special group study framework.

Chapter 10 University Governance and the EU Personnel Team

The Council is the University's "board of trustees" or supreme governing authority, determining policies, supervising their implementation, and managing all the affairs and assets of the university.

By virtue of the history of its founding, the Council has thus far been an essentially self-appointed and self-perpetuating body. The imprint of the Rothschild Foundation is large and unmistakable. Heading the 27 members of the Council is Chancellor Mrs. James A. (Dorothy) de Rothschild; the Deputy Chancellor is Jacob Rothschild. The Vice Chancellor is Max Rowe, former Secretary-General of the Foundation and EU's first president, 1974-77. Arthur Fried, Rothschild Foundation executive director in Israel, also serves actively on the Council. The balance of members include distinguished academicians, the Chief Education Officer of the Israel Defense Forces (IDF), industrial and judicial leaders, a consultant to the Council for Higher Education and, ex officio, the Minister of Education and Culture. (Until he resigned to become President of Israel, Haim Herzog also served on the Council.)

The Council's powerful Executive Committee, currently with 11 members, includes Rowe as Chairman plus Fried and EU President Avraham Ginzburg. It would be a modest understatement to observe that, while the Rothschild Foundation today contributes less than 13% of EU's budget, its influence in the direction of the University remains pre-eminent.

The Academic Committee (originally called the Academic Advisory Committee), appointed by the Council, draws up EU's academic programs "and is entrusted with maintaining the academic standards of the University, including the composition of academic courses . . . and, with the approval of the Council, the academic regulations of the university," including standards for

appointment and promotion. In 1984, this influential committee consisted of 23 members (up from seven members at its inception), including the EU president and two vice presidents, eight EU academicians, five professors of The Hebrew University, three each of Tel Aviv University and the Weizmann Institution and two of Bar Ilan University. There is no current "representation" from the three other universities of Israel. (At least one long-term member of the Committee has criticized the declining participation of professors from other universities and the inadequate representation of academics drawn from the social sciences.)

Recognizing broad disciplinary lines, the Committee has appointed four subcommittees—Mathematics, Natural and Life Sciences, Social Sciences and Education, Humanities and Judaic Studies. Members of the full Academic Committee as well as EU staff and subject matter experts are co-opted for service on these subcommittees. (The work of the Committee and its subcommittees is treated more fully in Chapter Six in the discussion of course development.)

EU's President (currently Professor Avraham Ginzburg, a distinguished mathematician, former Haifa Technion professor and EU Executive Vice President) is the academic as well as administrative and financial head of the University. (In most Israeli universities, these roles are divided between the President and the Academic Rector.) He is responsible for carrying out the policies and decisions of the Council and its Executive Committee.*

To assist in the management of EU, there are also two vice presidents, one for Academic Affairs (Prof. Israel Shatzman) and one for Planning and Technology (Dr. Yonah Peless, who concurrently heads the Rothschild-initiated Center for Educational Technology).

The additional chief administrators of the University reflect the organization's relatively non-hierarchical and lean structure. These include three directors for Course Development (including courseware or media services), Administration of Studies, and Student Administration.

The Academic Faculty

Long before EU opened formal studies, its planners determined that it was impractical for the new institution ever to build the kinds of specialized

* Ginzburg is held in highest regard by EU staffers, academicians at other institutions and key figures in the Council for Higher Education. To his energies, enthusiasm and administrative skills are attributed much of EU's success to date. Staffers report easy access to the President and appreciate, in particular, his rapid style of decision-making. Criticisms, on the other hand, include alleged tendencies to over-control the tiniest details of EU's operations and to involve numerous persons simultaneously in the execution of a task rather than to delegate assignments clearly to one responsible officer. Overall, in a society marked by high contention and vigorous self-criticism, it would be difficult to identify a leader enjoying greater general esteem.

faculties which characterize conventional universities everywhere. As noted above, neither the Rothschild Foundation nor the Government of Israel would have supported a "typical" eighth university. Rather, EU determined to use the entire country's academic staff as a reservoir from which to draw talent, as needed.

In 1983–84, EU had a full-time senior academic staff of 13 lecturers and professors and 15 faculty from conventional universities who were spending their sabbaticals or leaves of absence at EU. Six professors with the Ph.D. were also employed without academic appointments, bringing the faculty total to 35. Several hundred scholars from around the country are also utilized on short-term contract to write and re-write varying portions of EU courses and to consult on particular substantive problems. The break-down of EU's faculty by academic fields is covered in Table 19.

Table 19: EU Faculty by Fields, 1983–84

Staff members holding an academic appointment (total: 13)

Judaism	Humanities	Social Sciences	Mathematics	Natural Sciences	Life Sciences
0	3	1	2	3	4

Others (total: 22)

Judaism	Humanities	Social Sciences	Mathematics	Natural Sciences	Life Sciences
5	5	7	3	2	0

(Source: Israel Shatzman in EU *President's Report, 1982–83*, p. 17.

EU's core academic staff prides itself on being pedagogic as well as substantive experts. Having learned through experience that many eminent research professors cannot teach or write in a pedagogically effective manner, cannot meet strict production timetables, or cannot communicate their knowledge in a lively and engaging manner, EU's academicians bear a heavy load. This involves, first and foremost, course writing and rewriting, didactic improvement, coordination of academic inputs from around the country, the training of course coordinators, teaching assistants and, sometimes, the tutors who will be EU's actual face-to-face teachers in the field, execution of one's personal research agenda and, finally, academic planning through service on the subcommittees of the Academic Committee.

The leadership of EU recognizes that 13 full-time academicians is an inadequate number. When resources permit, their intention is to eventually have a core staff of 40–50. If funds become available, this should not prove difficult as the continuing recession in Israeli higher education means that much talent is potentially available, including Israelis who have trained and

taught abroad and who are experiencing great difficulty in finding suitable posts in one of Israel's traditional universities.

"Pure" research is expected of faculty members and up to half of one's time is theoretically available for the purpose. However, the demands of building a new university have thus far interfered with the ability of most faculty members to produce very much in their own disciplines. In the words of the Academic Committee:

> "There is no doubt that preparing course work at the level demanded by the University is creative in the full sense of the word, requiring professional knowledge, detailed research, didactic talents, pedagogic innovation and continual evaluation. The special nature of this work combined with a tight schedule (dictated at first to a great extent by the needs of the students) has thus far occupied most of the time of the faculty members."

Sabbaticals—Advanced Study Funds or paid leaves of absence for purposes of writing and research—are available to academic faculty at the rank of lecturer and above who accumulate rights at the rate of two months' salary for every year of work. Thus, after six years of service, academicians are entitled to a full year off at full salary. This fund is supported completely by EU (as at other universities), not by participating staffers. While academicians are permitted to devote up to half their time to research, are encouraged to work with researchers at other universities, and are given modest financial assistance* for their work, EU lacks both adequate research facilities and graduate research students to put at the disposal of its academic staff.

The process of becoming an EU faculty member is extended and difficult. Professor Shatzman's quite explicit description of the hurdles merits citation:

> "References and proven scientific publications are not enough. Since the ability to write in a style and form consistent with EU's system is a condition sine qua non, candidates are asked to submit a good selection of sample-writing bearing out their qualifications. Only after a significant amount of material has been submitted and found satisfactory, can they start working as EU employees, as yet without academic appointment. The Professional Committee upon which such an appointment depends, will reserve its judgement until at least two study units have been submitted. The process may take up to a year.
>
> Almost one hundred candidates have applied, in the course of last year, either at their own initiative or in reply to our advertisements in the press and our contacts with the labour exchange that deals with returning professionals. Some of the applicants were found unsuitable as far as their scope of activities were concerned. All the others were interviewed and given a detailed explanation of our mode of operation and admission procedure. Some were deterred by the information, but many ventured on the path to

* The Rothschild Foundation has made a small number of faculty fellowships available for both EU and CET staff.

> admission. Only a few were found suitable. A professional committee is presently considering their candidacies. Ten more aspirants are preparing their first material as outside writers. Most of them are social scientists (economics, business administration, political sciences, sociology and psychology)".
> (EU *President's Report, 1982–83*, p. 18)

The junior academic staff of EU, numbering around 100 full-time, includes many candidates for advanced degrees as well as holders of the M.A. These may be divided into two broad categories: 1) members of course development teams, including writers, liaison to external writers, conceptualizers of graphic and other audio-visual aids, editors, etc.; 2) course coordinators whose duties include writing assignments, preparing syllabi and final examinations, checking CMAs, TMAs and final examinations, arranging laboratory sessions and field trips, recruiting tutors, advising students in person, by mail or telephone, and generally assisting in the smooth transition from course development to actual studies in the field, a task made easier by the fact that many course coordinators have previously served on course development teams and are therefore quite familiar with both course substance and distance learning methodology.

EU encourages its junior academic staff to pursue higher degrees by granting one and a half days off per week for studies and by paying two-thirds of their tuition at the conventional universities. Junior staff work is evaluated annually with grades of A–D. The personnel office then translates these grades into shekel supplements ranging from 12 1/2 to 30% of the base salary.

Tutors, lab assistants and other part-time personnel, of whom there are about 400, are hired for a semester at a time.

The Total Personnel Team

In summary, for the 1983–84 year, EU's staff is budgeted at 277 employees of whom 161 (58%) work in instructional services. Other staff functions include: student services-34; publishing and printing-37; data processing-7; library-3; maintenance-12; general administration (including public relations and development)-22.

A closer look at the total EU staffing pattern, including part-time workers on contract, shows a staff almost three times as large (780) as regular budgeted slots (277). It also demonstrates marked differences from conventional universities: the small size of the academic core and the "economies of scale" which are inherent in a DTU's large use of tutorial and other on-contract personnel.

As of July 1983, EU's approximate 780 staff members—salaried and contract workers—were organized as follows:

Table 20: EU's Staff by Function, 1983–84

Administration of Studies (682 persons, or 87% of the total staff)	
Administration	17
Academic staff* and editors (about one-third on partial salaries)	105
Academics employed by contract (counselors, outside readers and writers)	150
Tutors and lab assistants (part-time contracts)	400
Evaluation and follow-up team and course Secretariat	10
Student Administration (31 persons, or 4% of total staff)	
Administration	3
Registration, follow-up, exams, study centers, study aids and bookstore	19
Storage, distribution and mail	7
Building supervisor and watchman	2
Publishing House (25 persons, or 3% of total staff)	
Administration	5
Typists, graphic artists, correctors and proofreaders	20
General Administration (42.5 persons, or 5% of total staff)	
Management and public relations	6.5
Personnel, finance and accounting	15
Library, purchasing and maintenance	14
Computer section	7

* EU's "Senior Academic Staff" numbers 13 professors, lecturers and senior lecturers.

(Source: EU *President's Report, 1982–83*)

Labor Relations and the Question of Tenure

Long-simmering issues center on the absence of tenure arrangements for anyone at EU and on the powers of the faculty. From its inception, EU's founders in the Rothschild Foundation were dead set against creating standing claims for employment and heavy compensation upon separation from the institution. Instead, EU senior academic personnel earn the same basic compensation as prevails in the traditional Israeli universities to which is added an increment of 30% in lieu of tenure. An initial appointment at EU is for a period of one to two years. Over time, appointments may be granted for periods of up to five years. Since base salaries in Israel—the portion of (an often substantially larger) total compensation package that is used for purposes of calculating retirement benefits—are quite low, many EU faculty feel both financially deprived and insecure about their academic future.

Various organizations of employees—senior and junior academics, administrative and support personnel—also complain periodically of poor labor relations at EU. On August 10, 1981, for example, the Academic Staff Organizations of EU wrote to Vice Chancellor Rowe (former EU President and today Chairman of the EU Executive Committee):

> "Despite all our efforts, we have failed to obtain formal recognition or even to come to some sort of understanding with governing bodies. The denial of recognition to our duly instituted organization arouses a deep sense of frustration and bitterness among all our members. We feel we are being deprived of the most basic rights to which every employee in a democratic society is entitled, particularly in a public institution."

Earlier, Dr. Yoel Klemes, on behalf of the Organization of Academic Staff, complained to the EU Council about the faculty's low status, the "relatively minor role we are permitted to play in academic decision-making (particularly, long-range policy); our inadequate representation on the Academic Advisory Committee" and the denial of tenure "as a matter of principle." A faculty demand for "100% non-tenure compensation" was also addressed to Professor Ginzburg without apparent result.

On September 10, 1981, the Academic Staff registered important objections to the proposed draft "Statutes and General Regulations" of the University. These objections included: the absence of tenure as a device to ensure academic freedom; the vesting of all powers, including academic ones, in the hands of the Council (Board of Trustees) instead of in an Academic Senate; granting academic (as well as administrative) powers to the President when he is solely responsible to the Council and Executive Committee and not to any academic body; granting to the President the academic powers of an Academic Senate-elected Rector—the chief academic officer in traditional Israeli universities; the possibility that professors from other universities might come to dominate EU's Academic Committee;* and the failure to grant real power to the Academic Committee.

At the Council meeting of November 17, 1981, Chancellor Dorothy de Rothschild, speaking for the Council, made it clear that no major changes were in the offing, no matter what personnel practices existed elsewhere:

> "Speaking as one who participated in the decision to found it, our (Rothschild) Foundation would never have considered for one moment adding an eighth University of the conventional type to the seven already established in Israel. Without question, we all shared the general opinion that Israel was already most honourably and adequately endowed with such distinguished places of learning that the addition, if only of one more university of this type, would undoubtedly be superfluous . . .
> Indeed, I gladly acknowledge that we *are* different and that throughout our short existence we have advisedly operated in different lines from other universities."

While EU academic staff would gradually become more prominent in the Academic Committee and its subcommittees which advise on the creation of

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* In 1983–84, 11 of the 23 members of the Academic Committee are affiliated with EU, including the president and both vice-presidents. Interestingly, President Rowe had predicted in the mid-Seventies: "As our own academic staff advance in years and in seniority, some of them will be co-opted to the (Academic) Committee and, in a gradual way, the Committee may ultimately become the Senate of Everyman's University."

new courses and the general academic profile of EU, and while a Faculty Council has also recently been formed, no challenges to the control of the University by the Rothschild founders and its appointees would be countenanced. Given the lack of alternative employment opportunities for the bulk of EU's academic staff, now and in the foreseeable future, it appears unlikely that EU's staff will soon exercise the veto powers of their academic colleagues at conventional Israeli universities where strong discipline-centered departments and powerful academic senates often thwart university administrations.

Morale And Mission

Having touched upon delicate issues of tenure and labor relations, it is only fitting to report on what seems to this observer a most unusual measure of belief in the purposes and performance of the University. While the tenure issue still rankles and several veteran administrators concede that there has been some let-down in the almost revolutionary fervor that characterized EU at its inception, morale and sense of mission appear remarkably high.

From the President to the print shop, EU workers express pride, purpose and accomplishment. Having seen so much tangible progress in both the institution and in its rapidly rising enrollments, EU staffers are inclined to view their contribution in far larger terms than the expected ones of helping individual students to realize their personal potential. Indeed, in a country whose elders often lament the erosion of "Zionist idealism and pioneering spirit", EU personnel at all ranks seem unusually imbued with a sense of national mission which, variously stated, includes training a new generation of leaders from the more disadvantaged sections of society, breaking down some of the encrusted (and relatively expensive) ways of doing things in the established universities, to preparing large cadres of highly productive workers and managers and thus "turning around" a lagging Israeli economy.

Chapter 11 The University Budget

For the academic year ending September 30, 1984, EU projected a "realistic" budget of 923 million shekels, or $10,250,000 based on a projected average annual exchange rate of 90 shekels = $1. However, by the half-way point, the start of the February 1984 semester, the exchange rate approximated 130 shekels to the dollar and the annual inflation rate was about 250%—versus an assumed rate of 135%. Thus, constant adjustment is required in budget categories stated in shekels.

Of greater analytic utility is the overall distribution of expenditures, by percentage and function, within the budget. These are (rounded): instructional services (including teaching staff, coordination, follow-up, course development and revision, creation of teaching aids, operation of study centers, testing, grading, evaluation) 58.9%; student services 10.5%; design, publishing, printing of study materials 14.2%; data processing 2.4%; library 0.8%; general administration (including public relations and development) 6%; maintenance and general outlays 5.4%; reserves 1.6%.

Within the largest category—the budget for instructional services—approximately 75.2% is earmarked for teaching operations in a total of 275 courses; 17.9% is designated for creation of teaching materials for 41 courses and the acquisition of a computer; 6.9% is destined for course development and research in 28 courses.

On the income side, EU projects grant income from the Rothschild Foundation* of $1.3 million (12.7% of its budget); 55.5% from the public's Planning

* Beginning in 1973 and until September 30, 1980, the Rothschild Foundation spent a total of $10,653,295 on the EU project. In 1980, at the request of the Ministry of Education, in view of the country's difficult financial circumstances and considering EU's progress to date, the Foundation voted a further $5 million over the next five years, 1980–81 to 1985–86. Whether the Foundation would be receptive to general funding requests thereafter cannot be determined at this time.

and Grants Committee; 18.6% from student tuition and fees; 2.7% from external institutions supporting course development; 3.2% from sale of its study materials; 2.3% from endowment, interest, sale of copyrights and miscellaneous sources; and 4.9% ($500,000) to be raised externally from an accelerated fund-raising campaign.

Fund-Raising

Israel's seven conventional universities receive about eight percent of their budgets from philanthropic gifting, mostly from overseas Jewry. While a latecomer to this search for overseas funding—and still far from well-known at home—EU is actively promoting the establishment of tax-exempt "Friends of Everyman's University" organizations in the U.S.,* England and elsewhere.

Prodded by the Planning and Grants Committee to do more in external fund-raising, the current EU budget contains provision for $500,000 in fund-raising income—which may well prove overly optimistic. In any case, EU has expanded its development staff and prepared attractive fund-raising brochures. With the help of its friends, particularly Arthur Fried of the Rothschild Foundation, it is seeking funds for such specific items as:

Course development: "The Heritage of East-European Jewry"—first in Hebrew and then in English for communities abroad	$300,000
Course development: "Jerusalem Through the Ages"	$400,000
Expansion of Teaching and Research Science Laboratory	$450,000
Extension of Central Computer Center and Provision of Computer Consoles in the Regional Study Centers	$500,000
Press information center for "Enhancement of Asian and African Jewish Communities and Culture"	$800,000
Sponsorship of a study center for a Project Renewal Leadership Group for one year	$ 25,000

Or, more generally: a new 12-unit course—$150,000; single unit in a course—$10–$15,000; adaptation and translation of a course into English—$120,000; video programs for a course—$30,000; scholarship fund for 15 students—$10,000; library wing—$25,000; audio-visual equipment—$15,000 up; seminar room—$60,000–100,000, etc.

Tuition at EU

Tuition at EU has consistently been set at a level substantially under that

* Interested readers may contact: American Friends of Everyman's University (Israel); 250 West 57th Street, Suite 2507, New York, NY 10019; telephone: (212) 265-4062.

charged in the conventional universities; originally half and today about two-thirds of regular university tuition. Nevertheless, income from tuition and student fees is exceptionally important in EU's operating budget. In 1983–84, tuition accounts for 18.6% of total EU budgeted income, or roughly triple the proportion in other Israeli universities.

For Semester 15 (beginning September 1983), the fee for a one-credit EU course was 3,200 shekels, the equivalent at registration of $71. Multiplying $71 by 18, the number of credits needed to receive a bachelor's degree, we compute the tuition cost of an EU degree at approximately $1,278.* Comparing the present annual tuition in other universities of $615 and multiplying that number by the usual three years of study, we calculate a total bachelor's degree tuition cost of $1,845—44% more than the cost at EU.** Moreover, EU students receive the bulk of their textbooks and other study materials as part of their tuition and are able to pursue full-time employment while studying, thus eliminating the expensive "opportunity costs" inherent in study at a conventional university.

Societal Costs of an EU Degree

Arthur Melmed and his associates have computed total societal costs of obtaining the bachelor's degree at EU and at "long-established" and "younger" universities. These are shown in the following table.

Table 21: Cost of First Degree in EU and in Other Universities from Perspective of National Economy

	(U.S. dollars at 1977 prices)		
	EU	Long-established University	Younger University
Teaching Costs	3,600	6,000	8,000
Capital Costs	2,000	5,000	4,000
Loss of Output	5,000	12,500	12,500
TOTAL	10,600	23,500	24,500

(Source: Melmed *et al.*)

Thus, considering the value of the student's time or contribution to the economy, the cost of an EU bachelor's degree was $10,600 or 44% of the cost

* For semester 17 (beginning September 1984), EU tuition per course has been set at 17,000 shekels, if paid by June 22, 1984. At the time of announcement, this tuition was projected to be $85 which would raise the cost of an EU degree to $1,530.

** Using 1977 data, when the tuition at EU was only about $50 per course, Melmed *et al.* found comparative costs to be $900 for a degree at EU versus $1,800 at conventional Israeli universities.

in a traditional university. The implications for Israeli policymakers are too salient to ignore and, accordingly, we shall return to them in our concluding chapter.

Chapter 12 Accomplishments, Recommendations, Questions for Policymakers

This study was conceived with multiple audiences in mind, particularly Third World educators and policymakers who might be interested in knowing how one small country went about the task of adapting distance education or open learning methodologies and techniques to its own national needs. Other audiences include Israeli educators and policymakers who might wish to ponder both next steps for Everyman's University and the meaning of EU's experience for Israeli higher education generally.

EU's Accomplishments: The First Decade

As this narrative is concluded, EU is scarcely a decade old—from drawing boards to a student enrollment approaching 13,000. What can we say, with some assurance, has been accomplished in so short a time?

1. First, an institution has been created characterized by considerable complexity and sophistication in instructional technologies, delivery systems, accountability procedures and administration. An impressively small staff serves its students nationwide with substantial efficiency. All this in a country which increasingly admits to rampant inefficiencies and recognizes that it suffers from the twin disabilities of "Levantinism" and East European over-bureaucratization. Even though EU's learning system is heavily dependent on services beyond the University's control, (for example, mail and telephone), most things work at EU, most of the time. This in itself is no small achievement.
2. Tapping the intellectual resources of many parts of the country, EU has created a major body of courses and study devices unique to the Hebrew

language. These materials are respected beyond EU's immediate circles and seem to offer substantial potential for improving instruction in the traditional Israeli universities as well as in the Jewish Diaspora.

3. The University has earned full accreditation by the Council for Higher Education and is now supported financially by the same public processes which sustain the more established universities. Both of these indices are recognition that EU offers academic and other studies of high quality and without compromising the intellectual standards expected of all Israeli universities.
4. Thousands of adults of all ages have been proven capable of disciplined academic studies despite their not having passed the traditional matriculation examination. Students who, due to a variety of circumstances, would be barred from participation in a regular university or who would be physically or financially unable to do so are now studying successfully at EU. The University's appeal to teachers, kibbutz members and soldiers performing their compulsory military service has been particularly well demonstrated.
5. The quality of EU's work among so-called disadvantaged populations appears to be efficacious. As measured by grade point averages and course completion ratios, the academic achievements of EU students with Asian and North African backgrounds are indistinguishable from those of students with European and American origins.
6. Although EU has imported foreign distance learning technologies and adapted them to the Israeli scene, and at the same time grown substantially faster than originally anticipated, the EU learning environment is one of exceptional intimacy. EU staffers appear to have extraordinary measures of contact with students who, in turn, report that they experience little of the impersonalism associated with most large universities.
7. Overall, EU is helping to raise the intellectual, cultural and employability levels of the population at considerably less cost, both to the taxpayers and to its students, than conventional institutions while, at the same time, permitting its students to continue contributing to a skills-short economy.
8. In its increasing involvement with the high schools, community colleges, adult education centers, teacher training colleges and even the conventional universities, EU appears to be making slow but tangible progress toward introducing distance learning and self-study skills and commitments to the entire Israeli educational system. (In this, it is living up to the challenge set forth by Max Rowe before the institution opened: "If open learning remained restricted to a single institute, however, successful, it would become a marginal element in the educational pattern of any country and would not achieve the significance which it deserves.")

9. Finally, Israeli higher education has been strengthened in several ways: 1) by the creation of quality study materials; 2) by expanding the pool of students qualified for graduate studies, particularly among those who could not have completed the baccalaureate degree in any other way; and 3), most especially, by paying pre-eminent attention to effective pedagogy and by addressing the crucial question, "What is quality in higher education?" As hundreds of professors from around the country have come to be involved in EU's work, the spin-offs for improved teaching elsewhere cannot be doubted.

This last point warrants further consideration. Alexander W. Astin (1980), one of the United States' leading students of higher education, has argued that most measures of institutional quality are inadequate in today's policy environment. He proposes a new way of assessing such quality, one which seems particularly appropriate to the manner in which EU operates. In Astin's view, the pedagogical skills of college faculties are one of the most underdeveloped resources in higher education and, therefore, "concentrating more of our energies on the development of these skills could prove to be the most productive and self-protective activities that institutions can engage in during the next ten years." Believing that institutions must become far more student-oriented than at present, Astin defines a high-quality institution as "one that knows what's happening to its students and one that gives faculty clear-cut opportunities to develop their teaching skills. . . . In other words, quality is equated here not with prestige or physical facilities but rather with a continuing *process* of critical self-examination that focuses on the institution's contribution to the student's intellectual and personal development." Astin was not writing about EU, of course, but his observation seems no less relevant to this inquiry.

Recommendations

Against this backdrop of fairly large-scale accomplishments this observer would offer only a modest number of relatively narrow-gauge recommendations for the consideration of EU's staff and leadership:

1) *A Management Review*—EU's streamlined staff appears to operate on an extremely professional level with considerable *esprit de corps*. Yet, many of the "old-timers" remark on a noticeable slowing of pace and some signs of instructional fatigue. Moreover, EU's organizational structure and administrative procedures are not appreciably different today, when EU serves 13,000 students each semester, than when it first opened its doors in 1976. Perhaps, therefore, it is time for an independent management review to consider anew the administrative structure and operations as a whole, including such sensitive areas as the operations of study centers, coping with worsening mail services, recruitment and training of tutors, and organization

of leadership and administrative responsibilities in the central University staff.

In this connection, the observations of Max Rowe in 1975, before EU commenced operations, merit consideration today. Rowe came away from his survey of DTUs around the world with both admiration and a "sense of wonderment that organizations so young could already be so middle-aged . . . most of us seem to have settled down to a fairly rigid pattern of operations, as if we had already outgrown the state of search and adventure." What is needed, opined Rowe, is a "mechanism for continuous review, for challenging all prior assumptions, for adapting to changing circumstances and for trying out new ways . . . ". The proposed "Management Review" might well be one way for furthering the kind of process Rowe had in mind.

2) *A Marketing Company*—EU's textbooks and supplementary learning tools are often exciting, high-quality achievements in their own right. Consequently, there is little doubt that they would appeal to a far broader Israeli audience than is now familiar with them. Adoptions of EU course materials by the conventional universities appear to be limited primarily by the amount of effort expended on the task. And the potential for EU courses in the Jewish Diaspora and perhaps in the Third World countries may easily exceed the "natural market" in Israel.

Because EU's existing staff is already tautly stretched, it would be well to consider a new and autonomous marketing arm, along the lines followed by Britain's OU since 1976—an EU Educational Enterprises, Inc.—or by contract with private enterprise, for the dissemination of EU study materials to the four corners of the earth.

Similarly, as the State of Israel gradually re-establishes trade and diplomatic relations with Third World nations it may not be too much to expect that an EU International Consultancy Service may be able to render important assistance to developing countries as they seek cost-effective ways to extend the benefits of higher learning to their people.

3) *Research on Potential Student Body*—When EU opened its classes for study in 1976, enrollments were initially larger than expected. EU's founders were delighted, for one of the nagging questions while the University was being planned was whether EU's difficult demands would appeal to many persons.

Today, EU has tapped a good deal of the reservoir or pent-up demand of Israelis who never had a chance to obtain education in a conventional university. But no one knows how deep that reservoir runs, what kinds of students are still not being served by EU's current mode of operations, what kinds of students will diminish (or increase) in the future, etc. For example, as the Ministry of Education succeeds in consolidating teacher training colleges and building stronger institutions than presently exist, will such colleges find advantage in closer or lesser collaboration with EU? Will the community

colleges become more like conventional universities or be aided to become advanced outposts of EU's distance learning mission? Would it be desirable and, if so, what would it take for soldiers to complete their bachelor's degree at EU rather than going on to study in a conventional university after discharge from the army? In the interests of equality of opportunity, does it make sense for EU to develop more studies in Arabic for those with insufficient proficiency in Hebrew?

In short, little is known about what various categories of potential students find lacking in existing educational offerings. At EU and elsewhere, academic specialists determine what should be offered and help to assure quality control for what is offered. But student desires, the needs of employers, actual and potential, and manpower experts considering the emerging and long-term needs of the Israeli economy do not play significant roles in the EU decision-making process. Now that EU has been established beyond a doubt as "academically respectable" it may be asked what the institution can do to assure that it is also fully relevant to the needs of the Israeli economy and of Israelis as independent consumers of educational services. Some sophisticated "market research" may well be one of EU's best investments as it faces its second decade of instructional service.

4) *Follow-up on EU Graduates*—With two graduating classes already at work in the world it is not too early to plan an inquiry into the long-term effects of an EU education. While we know that the majority of EU students, like their OU counterparts, seek self-development above material benefits from their studies, it would be important for the University's long-term support to know how graduates view their experience at EU. What proportion pursue further studies and with what success? What proportion believe that EU studies contributed to improved job satisfaction and promotion?* The time to build a useful longitudinal data base—and a mutually helpful alumni network—is now.

Questions for Policymakers

By way of concluding observations, we have chosen to raise a number of somewhat larger questions regarding possible future directions for EU. While the author's value preferences may be revealed by the manner in which these "Questions for Policymakers" are phrased, their sole purpose is to stimulate thought and discussion among all those who have the means to shape public policy. This would include not merely the Government and its various ministries, the Planning and Grants Committee, the "mini-governments" of the

* Research at OU revealed that two-thirds of the graduates were motivated to try for better pay, promotion or job change while 38% attributed to their OU degree the sole reason for their job promotions. Overall, 71% viewed their studies as improving their job skills and performance at work. See Rumble (1982), page 78, commenting on the research of Betty Swift.

universities, but also philanthropic foundations, the media of public enlightenment and all those who share a commitment to education as an instrument of social and not merely individual betterment.

EU and the Disadvantaged

As we have repeatedly observed, an overriding objective in the establishment of EU was a narrowing of the social and economic gaps which characterize Israel's heterogeneous population. All the available evidence, however, suggests that EU—in line with other distance education efforts, e.g., Britain's Open University—has *not yet* been notably successful in meeting this objective.

To be sure, over half of EU's current student body could not have been accommodated in Israel's traditional universities. Lacking the basic and formal entrance requirements, they would be unable to pursue further academic studies. In that sense, they might be considered "disadvantaged." For them EU serves as a marvelous "second chance" opportunity.

To be sure as well, EU has undertaken promising pilot efforts with the disadvantaged in several of the country's deprived communities (for example, in Project Renewal and among the Histadrut Labor Federation's less educated cadres), as discussed in Chapter Nine.

Yet, the fact remains that EU is not now reaching in a significant way the nation's poorest and most isolated populations—especially those originating from Asia and North Africa, rural Arabs and women with large traditional families (both Arab and Jewish).

In that case, the most appropriate "Question for Policymakers" would seem to be: To what extent should EU be *redirected and refocussed* so as to give higher (or highest) priority to reaching and assisting the disadvantaged population? For, at present, EU merely stands by, ready to serve. (It was, in fact, leaders of the disadvantaged, convinced that EU had much to offer, who approached the University, not the other way around.) Under current budget constraints, EU simply does not have the human and financial resources to reach out, to motivate and to recruit students, and especially to provide the costly pre-academic preparatory and counseling and support services (particularly in the geographically dispersed Arab villages and Jewish development towns and depressed urban neighborhoods) which are essential if such a highly targeted operation is to be successful.*

* The counsel of the Schramm Commission in 1972 may be recalled with profit: moshav and other rural dwellers and the disadvantaged generally were seen as lacking the "self-generating capacity" of kibbutzniks. Therefore, the Commission recommended that EU put a corps of group organizers into the field to "seek out local leadership and help groups to get started and to become self-sustaining with substantive stimulation provided by the programs and materials" of EU. Mounting such a corps of group organizers, working in the villages and various high schools, is clearly beyond the present fiscal capability of the University.

Nor can we report that such a renewed emphasis on serving the disadvantaged seems to be a particularly high priority of EU's governing Council or much of its administrative leadership. Perhaps out of genuine doubt that such a priority is feasible for both educational and budgetary reasons, the leadership of EU in its first decade has been focusing—quite successfully, as we have noted—on building a first-class, academically respectable institution and on proving that distance education has an important contribution to make to the Israeli educational scene.

To repeat then, a prime question for EU's second decade is to what extent special efforts for the disadvantaged should be featured in the University? And with the answers to this question ride a series of major budgetary considerations in a time of extremely painful economic retrenchment.

From "Second Chance for All" to "First Chance for Some"

EU's validity as a "second chance" institution and as one serving working students has been clearly established. Moreover, as we have noted in Chapter Eleven, EU is cost-effective, both to students and to the society. Estimates of the total resource costs (including "opportunity costs") of an EU degree are as little as one-sixth that at a conventional university, one-third the cost of education if allowance is made for research carried on in traditional universities. Even taking so-called "dropouts" into consideration, the cost per EU graduate is still only one-half that in the other Israeli universities.

Therefore, policymakers concerned with the allocation of increasingly scarce public resources ought to consider whether EU might be assisted to become a university of *first*, not merely last, resort. Should soldiers performing their compulsory military service continue to be told that, after sharpening their study skills at EU, they should expect to complete their bachelor's degree at a (more expensive) conventional university? Should more teachers' training colleges be expanded and strengthened without reference to the considerable educational expertise and economies of scale that a *required* collaboration with EU might entail? And should the six universities with large undergraduate programs be permitted to offer courses without reference to the pedagogical experience and effective investments made by the Israeli public in the same or similar courses developed by EU?

In all likelihood, the majority of Israel's undergraduates would continue to opt for campus-based study in one of the traditional universities; coercion to make them choose studies at EU would probably be self-defeating since many students lack the self-discipline required for success at EU. Yet, a conscientious policymaker might well ponder the savings to the national treasury and the contributions to the economy if more students were encouraged to study at EU while simultaneously participating in the labor force. If that were the goal, a large body of international experience might readily be tapped, e.g., reduced tuition, employer-paid tuition, and cooperative education.

In not too many years, when EU has completed the bulk of its course development, particularly in upper-level courses, it will also be appropriate to ask whether EU should be authorized to offer *graduate* programs, particularly in fields vital to the security and well-being of the State. It might well be that careful market research would reveal a significant number of Israelis prefer to work for their master's degree and doctorates in EU's distance learning framework rather than on traditional campuses.*

EU and National Manpower Needs

As noted in Chapter One, Israel's economy suffers from a gross maldistribution in its labor force. With 60 percent of its workers in the services (including 30% in public employment) and only 27% employed in industry and agriculture, Israel has been rapidly heading into a host of economic problems—massive balance of trade gaps, chronic shortages of skilled technical labor, excessive dependence on the public service sector, spiralling governmental deficits, rampant inflation, and much more.

While Israel's universities can hardly be blamed for causing such problems, it may be argued that their *laissez faire* attitude of providing whatever studies students seem to desire—or professors choose to teach—is not compatible with the nation's current economic, social and security imperatives. Clearly, there is a grave mismatch between what students study—a disproportionately high percentage in the humanities and Jewish studies, law, and medicine—and what a rapidly evolving economy demands: engineers, scientists, technicians and highly skilled workers of many types.

Under the continuing leadership of the Rothschild Foundation, EU is preparing to make a contribution to the solution of this major problem by establishing within its framework the new School of Technology (see Chapter Nine).

Yet a further question for policymakers is to what extent all of Israel's universities, including EU, should continue their "free market" attitudes toward students' choice of studies? No suggestion is made or intended that any university should limit enrollments in non-scientific and technical areas, for it is appreciated that the majority of workers in today's technical industries were not trained in those areas but are often liberal arts graduates. Nevertheless, in the interest of meeting national needs, should EU be concerned with the fact that two-thirds of its students study outside the framework of the natural sciences and technical fields? If so, should there be instituted, for example, tuition differentials and other incentives to students to study subjects deemed

* Britain's OU has, since its inception, been authorized to award advanced degrees, including the doctorate. Such activity (called by the British "taught higher degrees") is considered one of OU's major growth areas in the Eighties and beyond.

of overriding national importance? If so, should EU shift more of its new course development and course revision resources into these fields rather than spread them over a traditional "balanced" curriculum?

To be sure, questions like these are not unique to EU nor, indeed, to Israel. Policymakers everywhere are beginning to address them as well. However, Israel's Council for Higher Education and the Treasury of Israel urgently need to consider how best to utilize scarce resources—financial and human—if Israel is to surmount its massive socio-economic problems.

EU and the New Media

At EU, as at virtually every other DTU, the printed word in book form reigns supreme. Radio, television, cassettes, study kits, etc., all have their legitimate supplementary roles, but type is king.

It is widely acknowledged that EU's greatest contribution to date is the development of some 150 high-quality courses, all but a handful in the Hebrew language. Thus, in many instances, EU's printed words have made it possible for students with proficiency only in Hebrew to enter the vast world of universal or cosmopolitan knowledge. This, like the revival of modern Hebrew as a living language, is no small achievement Henceforth, students at EU as well as at every other Israeli university will have access to first-class study materials in the national language of the country.

Yet, even the casual observer must query whether EU is in a position to take advantage of the vast and revolutionary developments in the communications media. Advances in video, computers, lasers, satellites, cable and the like are changing our world beyond recognition.

Israelis are no strangers to this revolution. Home computers abound.

Israel reportedly ranks second in the world in the per capita ownership of video cassette recorders (VCRs). Yet, the world of education is notably conservative when it comes to the new media—and EU is scarcely an exception to the general rule. An institution which has been in the forefront of development in the printed word is seriously laggard when it comes, for example, to personal computer software and VCRs.*

The problem is, as usual, insufficient resources. The conscientious policymaker, concerned with the fullest possible exploitation of EU's achievements to date as well as its ultimate potential, cannot avoid the issue: will EU be a leader in the adaptation and utilization of the new media for university studies—for its own students and those at all of Israel's universities? Or will EU limp lamely and tardily into a new age of learning made possible by the new communications media?

* For example, Britain's OU is experimenting with the loan of VCRs to students who agree to participate in study groups and other self-help undertakings.

Policy Leadership in Times of Crisis

"One who does not believe in miracles is no realist."

—David Ben-Gurion

There will be many who, considering Israel's current horrendous economic crisis, will dismiss as "naive and impractical" the "Questions for Policymakers" which are posed above. The most usual response in difficult times is to focus on bare institutional survival, to ride out the storm, and to hope for better times to come. When severe budget cuts finally become inevitable—as they are in Israel today—the normal tendency is to distribute them evenly, for example, across all universities and other public institutions. (As this is written, Israel is undertaking extremely painful budgetary retrenchment with a baseline reduction target of nine percent for *all* government ministries. It seems next to impossible, in Israel's vigorously politicized environment, to achieve a set of national priorities which treat some governmental services markedly more favorably than others.) In times of crisis, moreover, innovation is generally shelved and new and promising ventures are typically consigned to be forgotten or, at best, to the file of historical "might-have-beens".

Yet, it is precisely such times of crisis which test the quality of leadership in policymaking which distinguishes the merely ordinary from the truly great.

In the case of EU, the reality is that a solid achievement, *with even greater potential*, has been created over the short space of a single decade. The University's curricular materials, teaching methods and administrative infrastructure are all effectively in place.

Yet, precisely when EU might make its maximum contribution to the solution of Israel's many social and economic problems, resources for all but sheer institutional survival—riding out the storm—do not appear in sight.

To be sure, survival in times of crisis is no small virtue, a virtue with which the Jewish people have had some experience. Yet, when "better times" return, we fear, EU's exciting *élan vital* may well be dissipated and its opportunities for service may well be unrecoverable.

What is needed now in the case of EU is the kind of "reality-based miracle" of which Ben-Gurion spoke, the kind of vision which initially inspired Yigal Allon and the Rothschild Foundation to create EU. That kind of "miracle" can come today from two quarters. Israel's educational and political leadership, by a tough-minded and visionary reordering of budgetary priorities and despite (and perhaps even because of) Israel's economic crisis can make resources available so that EU might reach new heights of excellence and service to the Jewish people. Or that kind of "miracle" can come from creative philanthropy which has so often paved the way for human achievements far beyond the normal, expected, typical and conventional.

In either case, should Israel's political-educational leadership and/or benevolent philanthropy choose to invest in EU's next stages of development, the chances of success are exceptionally high. In this most problematic of worlds, and on the impressive base of EU's first decade, much more can be built.

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